

DE BOW'S REVIEW:

A MONTHLY JOURNAL

OF

Commerce, Agriculture, Manufactures, Internal Improvements,
Statistics, etc., etc.

ESTABLISHED JANUARY 1, 1846.

VOL. XVII.

JULY, 1854.

No. 1.

Art. I.—UNIFORM SYSTEM OF COINAGE AMONG NATIONS.

UTILITY OF A UNIFORM SYSTEM IN MEASURES, WEIGHTS, AND FINENESS,
AND DECIMAL ACCOUNTS, FOR THE STANDARD COINAGE OF COMMERCIAL
NATIONS.

To render the subject of uniformity in coinage generally intelligible, slight references to history appear indispensable.

After the settlement of North America—from Europe—the earliest metallic currency of the colonies consisted of coins of the mother country. In 1652, Massachusetts provided for the coinage of shillings, sixpences, and threepences. The example was followed by Maryland, where silver and copper coins were issued in 1662.

In 1694 the Carolinas struck a half-penny; and two-penny, and penny pieces, in 1723 and 1733. In 1773 Virginia, also, introduced a half-penny coinage. Trade was carried on, principally, by barter.

As commerce and population increased, foreign gold coins were introduced—the English guinea, the Portuguese joannes, the Spanish doubloon, the French pistole, with Spanish dollars and their proportions, British silver coins, and, finally, French crowns.

After our Revolutionary struggle, various emissions of silver and copper were made by States; Massachusetts, New-Jersey, Connecticut and Vermont issued cents of varied weights. In 1783, J. Chalmers, at Annapolis, in Maryland, fabricated the smaller silver coins, carelessly proportioned. In 1830, Templeton Reed, in Georgia, and Christopher Bechtler, in North Carolina, coined gold pieces, literally at the pit's mouth, from veins and deposits worked in those States.

The pound of the colonies was originally the same as the pound sterling of Great Britain, but became greatly altered in

consequence of excessive issues of paper money, in very unequal proportions, by different colonial authorities.

In 1782, the Congress of the United States directed a report upon the subject of coins and currency, which was made by the financier, Gouverneur Morris. He labored to reconcile the moneys of the different States upon the pound basis, and expressed an opinion that it was "very desirable money should be increased in a decimal ratio, because, by that means, all calculations of interest, exchange, insurance, and the like, are rendered much more simple and accurate; and, of course, more within the power of the great mass of the people."

In 1784, Mr. Jefferson, on behalf of a committee, also advocated the decimal system, stating—"The most easy ratio of multiplication and division is that by ten. Every one remembers the facility of decimal arithmetic at school, and the bulk of mankind are school-boys through life."

Mr. Jefferson differed from Mr. Morris upon the unit of value, and proposed the Spanish dollar as the basis, which was adopted in 1785.

The confederation of the States had already provided that "Congress should have the sole and exclusive right and power of regulating the alloy and value of coins. The Constitution of 1789 arrested local issues, and vested the right of coinage solely in the General Government.

In 1790, Mr. Jefferson, then Secretary of State, made "A Report on Moneys, Weights and Measures."

In 1792, a code of laws and regulations was enacted for a mint, in Philadelphia, with denominations for coinage in gold, silver and copper. The standard of fineness for gold being fixed at .917; that for silver at .882 milliemes, or thousandths, according to the French mode of computation, now employed in the Mints of the United States, instead of the ancient expression by carats and eighths.

In 1793 and 1796, slight modifications were made in the weight of copper pieces, "on account of the increased price of copper in the commercial market."

In 1819, Mr. Lowndes proposed to raise the value of gold against silver. To provide a remedy for their recognized disproportion, engaged the attention of eminent statesmen for fifteen years. The fineness of the gold coins was ultimately reduced to .899 and a fraction.

In 1834, an act was passed changing the weight and fineness of the gold coins, and, also, the relative value of gold to silver. The first basis—fifteen to one—being found too low, at the market value, which, although constantly fluctuating, was near sixteen to one—the original Spanish ratio."

"The effect of our previous legal proportions was to reduce

the coinage of gold, and to restrain its circulation. Being always at a premium, the coin was immediately exported to Europe, in the course of trade, and there quickly wrought into other shapes."*

But the disadvantages of a complex standard of fineness in gold and in silver, determined the Director of the Mint to suggest the more simple and modern standard of France, established upon a distinct basis. This was acted upon by Congress, in 1837. The standard being fixed at .900, or ninety per cent. of fine metal, for gold and silver coins, in the 1000 parts.

In the year 1835, branches of the mint were directed to be established in Louisiana, Georgia and North Carolina—all the coins being uniform. A mint in California and an assay office in New-York have since been decided upon.

In Great Britain the basis of the value of money is the pound sterling, of twenty shillings. This pound, of standard silver, was represented by the guinea, a gold coin, ordained in 1675, during the reign of Charles the Second.

From a depreciation of silver coins in England, Sir Isaac Newton, Master of the Mint, during George the First, recommended in 1717, that the guinea should be rated at twenty-one shillings.

In 1816 the sovereign, a new gold coin of twenty shillings, slightly differing in weight from the guinea, was substituted, and an alteration again effected in the British silver coinage—silver being made a legal tender only to the amount of forty shillings at a time.

In the history of the British Mint, the coinage of the year 1816 "will be remarkable," writes Dr. Kelly, "not only on account of important alterations then made in the monetary system, but also for the great accommodation afforded to the public." At the present moment still greater conveniences are desired in that country.

A recent Report of a Select Committee, to the House of Commons of Great Britain, founded upon careful inquiry, among intelligent and practical men, encourages a modification of measures and weights in all money accounts.

The decimal system of computation being acknowledged so simple and easily understood at home and abroad, compared with the mode at present employed, that "he who runs may count, his fingers being a text-book!"

A Governor of the Bank of England, Mr. Hankey, examined in reference to the sale or purchase of bullion, declared "a more complicated system than that lately in use—and one more fraught with incidents to error—would hardly be conceived."

* Manual of Coins and Bullion, by Eckfeldt and Dubois.

Three elements enter into the consideration :—1st. The *weight* calculated in troy pounds, ounces, pennyweights and grains. 2d. The *quality* of the gold, subdivided by twenty-four carats and their eighths. 3d. The element of *value* estimated in pounds, shillings, pence and farthings.

Prof. George Biddell, acting Astronomer Royal, remarked—“that if gold was adopted, as the standard of value, by other countries, it would be possible to have such international arrangements as would make the coin of different countries interchangeable at fixed rates.”

Sir John Herschell, Master of the Mint, “recommended a decimal coinage, accompanied by a decimal system of weights and measures.

The *only* point on which witnesses were divided in opinion, before the Select Committee, was the precise basis which should be adopted.

Under an impression that “the laws of physical nature operate uniformly, the unit of measure in England was fixed, by ascertaining the length of a pendulum, vibrating seconds, in the latitude of London, at the level of the sea.*

To this length a yard measure was referred and subdivided into three feet—of twelve inches—each.

“The unit of measure is the element from which is deduced the unit of weight.”

By such contrivances the magnitudes and distances of the planets, as well as the fineness and weights of coins, are measured, by the graduated scale of a yard stick; “the motions of the heavenly bodies being governed by general laws—applicable to all matter.”

During thirty-seven years, from 1689 to 1726, no less than nine changes were made in the standard value of gold coins in France.

In 1795, the present system was commenced in that country, based, however, upon a different calculation from the English, by an admeasurement of our planet—the earth—the distance from the equator to the pole being computed, for a standard of measure, the French metre.

A cube of pure water, at the temperature of melting ice, measuring each way the hundredth part of this metre, offered a certain standard weight, called a gramme. From such bases the franc coin was deduced.

These units of admeasurement were multiplied decimally, into other denominations, by which the system is thought to possess “completeness as well as simplicity.”

Before the year 1772, there were thirty-one mints in France—

* Davies' Logic of Mathematics.

these were afterwards reduced to eighteen. Finally, only six remain. The coinage of the French is very large, and specially their specie circulation in silver; while in England a gold coinage is more predominant.

The minor purposes of trade are supplied in populous portions of Asia—China, Burmah and Japan—by “a current money,” composed of thin plates of hardened, mixed, base metal, like brass or bronze, stamped with devices, and sometimes apparently cast in moulds; each piece having a square hole in the centre, by which these coins are strung like button-moulds, in parcels of one hundred, for the convenience of counting and of carriage.

Their computations of money are subdivided decimally. Being excellent judges of the purity of foreign coins, the Chinese separate good from bad with rapid accuracy. They recognize the character and fineness of metal by the sight, the touch, the smell and the sound.

Dr. John Bowring, formerly, and now, Consul at Canton, stated before the Select British Committee, that “in Japan, accounts had been kept in decimals time immemorial, and that the Chinese system is one of great simplicity and ease.”

The integer, or whole number, is one ounce of *pure* silver, which is divided into one thousand parts, called “cash.”

Dr. Bowring declared “he never could approach his Chinese servant in the celerity with which he kept his accounts.”

These anciently civilized nations employ refined gold and fine silver, in bullion bars, without coinage, for exchanges of all large sums in trade.

The Chinese notation of fineness is by hundredths, ours by thousandths. Some fine silver bars, fabricated in China, exhibited upon assay, at the mint in Philadelphia, a purity of .982 thousandths—a very high grade—equivalent to $98\frac{2}{5}$ per cent. of fine silver.

The Chinese money system we conceive to be similar to that recorded during the residence of the Hebrews in civilized Egypt. Identity in quality was the most ancient process of preparation for monetary calculations—as it is now—“pieces of money” were checked “by weight,” in the interchange between Joseph and his brethren, when Jacob sent into Egypt for corn.

Abraham is described to have had servants “bought with money of the stranger,” as well as some “born in his house.”

These references are presented for the satisfaction of those who dread novelties, to convince them our object is not a new one, but as old as the days of the Hebrew Patriarchs.

In Assyria, Persia and Hindostan, a coinage of gold was known and valued at the conquest of Alexander. From these countries the Greeks and Romans derived the models of their

measures, weights and devices, which have since prevailed in modern Europe, and now among us. From the time of Aristotle, we have a generally accepted definition—"money is a standard measure," by which the values of all things are ascertained, regulated and represented. Money forms a language of mathematical proportion, by which commercial interchanges are readily made and generally understood.

In Dialogues upon the usefulness of ancient medals or coins, Mr. Addison describes them as "a kind of printing, before the art was invented, giving great light to history;" we now know that the invention of printing claims a high antiquity.

Napoleon—as great in civil as in military administration—proposed to have, throughout Europe, money of the same value, but with different coins or devices.

Identity of coins has been employed to produce a stronger bond of union among nations. For this purpose the relations between the silver coinage of Russia and Poland were projected, to facilitate their intercourse.

The coinages of Italy and Spain were assimilated, at one time, with that of France; as those of Greece, Rome, Saxony and Baden now do. Uniformity is desirable in all national measures and weights, but specially to regulate coinage. Nations that have mints, possess means for one common measure or standard of proportions. The varieties which now exist result from want of concert in the elements of art, and needless dissimilarities in mint usages.

The principles upon which the practices of different mints are founded, prove that different nations may act upon the same general system in all money accounts.

The distinct units of *weight*, *fineness* and *value*, form curious and important portions in the arrangements of our coinage.

The properties in numbers were held sacred by the ancients, and regarded as of divine authority, from the evident system, exactness, order and harmony in the varied arrangements of the natural world.

Numbers were divided into classes:

ONE was regarded most eminently sacred—

Two the associate—

THREE considered perfect, comprehending—"The Beginning, the Middle and the End"—one conspicuous name of The Divinity.

Pythagoras was thought to mingle fancy with the truths of mathematics. FOUR was the number he is described to have affected to venerate the most, from deductions of the absolute powers of numbers he had been taught in the East.

FOUR contains, within itself, all the musical proportions; and a very ancient division of mathematical science distributed it

into four parts, namely: 1, Arithmetic; 2, Geometry; 3, Astronomy; and 4, Music!

The Spanish dollar, assumed as the unit of value for the coinage of the United States, contains one ounce of silver—originally subdivided into halves, quarters, eighths and sixteenths. This silver ounce was called "a piece of eight," in reference to the "reales" or twelve-and-a-half-cent pieces, which compose its sum.

Sixteen silver ounces are equal to one pound avoirdupois weight—the result of some ancient Phœnician, Assyrian, or Arabian measure of computation.

One pound, of sixteen ounces, of standard silver, was represented by a Spanish doubloon—an ounce of standard gold.

The unit of weight, in the calculations for coinage of the United States, is devised from the Troy ounce—twelve to the pound weight—believed to have been introduced into Troyes of France, from Cairo, in Egypt, during the Crusades. We dismiss the pound, pennyweight and grain weights, and confine our mint estimates to the divisions of one ounce into hundred parts, converted by a distinct process into dollars and cents; and we multiply the ounces decimally.

To estimate the quality of gold and silver, in the mint practice of the United States, the unit for fineness is obtained from the more modern French computation—a gramme—for assay of silver, and a half gramme—for assay of gold—each subdivided into thousandths or milliemes, in place of the antique jewellers' weights, twenty-four carats and their eighths.

By our decimal intentions we have intermingled a variety of units employed in the measures, weights and standards of other nations—but are uniform with none.

We have broken down some ancient systems into decimals, but still use the original materials, however difficult for mathematical correspondence, with others.

We have admitted astronomy, geometry and arithmetic into our mint calculations—but have disregarded music.

Our coins do not harmonize with those of other nations, nor do any accord with us.

In order to illustrate, for the convenience of those not conversant with the simple but still complicated structure of mintage, we may describe the elementary features in the coinage of gold for the United States as four—1st, perfectly fine gold; 2d, fine silver alloy; 3d, pure copper alloy; 4th, exact weight.

Silver, in some definite proportion, is always found united with gold in its native state; for perfectly pure gold is solely the result "of the refiner's art." Silver, therefore, is used as a natural alloy for gold coins by certain nations, who thus avoid the modern process of complete separation of these metals, and recovery of the silver by acids.

In the States of South America, in Mexico and in Spain, the coinage of doubloons was made without addition of copper alloy, while in Europe, generally, the mints endeavor to rid their gold coinage of silver entirely, reviving this metal by chemical process and using copper alone—as an alloy.

Consequently, the national colors vary very much in these different coinages of gold.

In the standard gold coins of the United States, the proportion of silver alloy has varied from 25 to 50–100ths in the 1000 parts, or from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 per cent. The other portion of alloy from 50 to 75–100ths, or from 5 to $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in the 1000—being copper. This allowance for silver alloy, in gold pieces, has been recently reduced at the United States mints to 11–100ths in the 1000, or 1 per cent. and a fraction, for greater uniformity of color.

Although the standards of France and of the United States are the same, in respect to the proportionate amounts of fine gold in their coinages, yet as the weights of their coins and the alloys differ, there is not a perfect approximation of values in their severally proportioned pieces.

The coins of either, when exported to the other, are mutually regarded as bullion—or uncoined gold.

The election of silver alone or copper alone as alloy, with the same allowance of fine gold in the coins of each, would render equal weights of the standards of both these countries—of the same intrinsic value.

The specific gravities or differences in the relative weights of metals of the same bulk, by measure, is expressed minutely and accurately by figures. The specific gravity of fine gold is rated at 19.30; fine silver at 10.50; pure copper, 8.80; but the gravity of a mixture of metals is not always the exact result of arithmetical addition.

With all the care that can be taken, the same alloy is acknowledged to produce varying results in this trial by specific gravity. Being a much less delicate test than the assay by complete separation of the metals, it is considered inadmissible for mint purposes.

The legal amount of fine gold in English standard coin, is 916 parts in the thousand, or $91\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. and a fraction, alloyed with copper alone; which gives a dark rich color to the British coin.

By concerted action between England, France, the United States and other nations, consenting to the employment of similar units of admeasurement for weights, fineness and alloys, connected with an uniform basis for all decimal computations; a French Napoleon, a Ducat of Denmark, an English Sovereign, a Spanish Pistole, a Moidore of Brazil, a Doubloon of Mexico

or Peru, and a Russian Imperial, could as conveniently, and more economically, be formed of the exact value of a gold coin of the United States, as it is easy for the several mints in the United States to oblige all Eagle coins to correspond precisely with each other; to contain exactly the same quantity of fine gold and alloys, and to be of the same general weight and value among us. Any sum can be mutually assumed, with equal facility, by concert at all mints, and decision in the bases.

The large amount of fine silver contained in our gold coins of preceding dates, had sometimes invited a destruction of their forms, for the purpose of recovering that metal by ready processes of art at refineries in foreign countries.

The addition of spurious or counterfeit pieces, to large amounts of correct gold coins, exported without sufficient scrutiny, once caused suspicion of the general accuracy of the coinage of the United States. Possibly, for want of information at that time, of a method to check the values of large amounts of standard gold, by weight, complaint was made to the American Minister in London, Mr. Lawrence, that the assays of the mints of the United States were suspected to be inexact.

As the annual trials to test uniformity in all the coinages of the several mints are regular and precise by law, the assayers experienced no inconvenience, although aware of other causes which produce the same results as defective purity, or deficient fineness in the national coinage.

The value of precious metals is computed by multiplying the gross weight, after proper melting, by the fineness or quality ascertained from careful assay, expressed in thousandths of a French half gramme. A moderate arithmetician can calculate—that defective weight would cause the same results in the product, as inaccuracy in the certificate of fineness.

Large sums of correct coins, slightly intermingled with counterfeit pieces, exhibit deficient weight before melting, to a mint officer or clerk; and when melted in mass, as surely show a lower quality by assay, than the standard fineness for legal coins.

The assayers and refiners abroad, certified satisfactorily to the accuracy of the mint practice in the United States. The French Mint in Paris, expressed such experience from re-melting, re-assaying and re-coining seven millions of our gold pieces—during that year.

While this constant re-melting and re-modelling of carefully coined gold occurs, the policy of incessantly increasing the gold coinage of the United States may well be questioned. For this manufacture, which is tedious, expensive and important, does not add to the value of the precious metals, which are solely regarded, in other countries, as old or uncoined gold.

The employment of gold and silver in the arts has become very extended, and bullion of different qualities may be easily prepared at the mints, for such operations; to restrain a disposition to work up coins alone for such purposes, in consequence of their well-ascertained quality of fineness, readily calculated for reduction.

As our Southern and Western States produce the precious metals, and four mints have been established in the South and West, this subject is important to us—in a mercantile view. Gold and silver, as raw products, are annually exported to a very large amount, besides the indiscreet and unnecessary loss of coins by transportation, to adjust our balances of trade.

Ancient historical monuments assure us the trade in gold and silver was appreciated in remote periods of civilization, and their valuation conducted upon a system, which originated in correct views of practical utility for general convenience, and the earliest commercial interchanges.

Moneys were very anciently divided into "pieces" designated by images or "devices," their value checked "by weight," and estimated from "quality," or their fineness.

The modern mint practices preserve the same measures of precaution, the purity and weight of every piece of coin being accurately adjusted before its emission from the mints.

By the systematic regulations of the Asiatics, whose usages in metallurgical arts gave an impulse to similar procedures in civilized Europe, we feel persuaded that the moderns, in the discovery of exact principles of art and knowledge, pass through the same kind of experience, which led to the many original processes enumerated in the Ancient Scriptures; which, while they offer to our intelligence a corrected system of morals, at the same time announce in simple, but comprehensive manner, the progress and condition of the varied useful arts of life, at periods we scarcely dare compute.

The existence of "good" gold, an expression understood to have reference to its quality of fineness, is noticed in the second chapter, 11th and 12th verses, of the Genesis. The technical name of goldsmith, translated "founder," appears in Judges, xvii. 4, and that of the crucible, or "fining-pot" for melting, in the Proverbs, xvii. 3.

The metals enumerated in those old writings, are iron, (Jer., xv. 12,) copper, (Gen., iv. 22,) silver, (Prov., xvii. 3,) gold, (Amos, vii. 7,) lead and tin, (Ezek., xxvii. 7.)

There is a Hebrew word ("Chasmil") to express an admixture or amalgam. Some suppose it bronze or brass, (Jer., vi. 28,) the ancient manufacture of which, at Corinth, was celebrated, as well as in Egypt. Others regard it a combination of gold alloyed with copper, like modern coin.

That the metallurgical arts were carried into useful manufactures at very distant ages, is shown by the list of tools fabricated from metals, or employed in the various processes of smelting and working them distinctly specified in the Hebrew Scriptures.

Axes, (Deut., xix. 5; 2 Kings, vi. 5) saws (2 Sam., xii. 31) and stone-cutters, (Deut., xxvii. 5) chisels, (Judges, xvi. 21) chains, bolts, nails, knives, warlike weapons, (1 Sam., xvii. 7) bedsteads, (Deut., iii. 11) chariots and harrows of iron, (2 Sam., xii. 31) are all mentioned, at the period of the Hebrew Exodus: besides numerous vessels for cooking or sacrifices, were made of copper; (Lev., vi. 28) defensive and offensive armor—swords, spears, (1 Sam., xvii. 5) arrow heads, shields and helmets of bronze or brass, combinations including the metals of copper and of tin.

Drinking vessels of gold and silver, (Ezra, v. 14) altars, idols, (Exo., xx. 20,) possibly a rough currency like coins, with devices, or rudely cast models of the figures of animals, were represented, as in common use in the days of Jacob.

Lead (Jer., vi., : 9; Zach., v. 3) was employed as weight for plumb lines (Amos, vii. 7.) The anvil, (Isaiah, xli. 7) the hammer, pincers or tongs, the bellows, (Jer., vi. 29) "fining-pots, or sand crucibles, (Prov., xvii. 3) and melting furnaces," (Ezek., xxii. 20, 22) are expressively detailed by Hebrew writers of antiquity.

The chemical or mechanical separation of the metals by fluxes, for purification, and the dross (Ezek., xxii. 18) resulting from them, are all used as illustrative comparisons of ordinary customs, in the familiar but figurative language of the Hebrews. The casting of images, (Ex. xxv. 12—xxvi. 37) forms, (Isaiah, xl. 19) figures or ornamented plates, were obviously known in the age of the Patriarchs. Soldering (Isaiah, xli. 7) and welding, smoothing (1 Kings, vii. 45) and polishing, (Ex., xxv. 11, 24) overlaying or gilding, (1 Kings, vi. 20,) and other metallurgical operations, indicate the distinct branches of "workers" in iron, (Isaiah, xliv. 12,) bronze, brass, (1 Kings, vii. 14,) silver, (Judges, xvii. 4,) and gold, (Mal. iii. 2.)

Some of the neighboring nations, as the Tyrians, (1 Kings, vii. 13) were noticed, by the same authorities, to have been more experienced and successful in such handicraft than the Hebrews.

Many golden coins produced during the past centuries at the mints in Europe, Africa and Asia, indicate a high degree of purity or fineness, and prove the excellence of former artistic processes, in this part of the manufacture. Gold and silver "refined in a crucible by fire," often used as comparison, to designate resemblances, indicate well-known customs. Such purity being not natural among those metals, but entirely due to processes of ingenious skill and art.

The sequins of Rome, Venice and Tuscany, fabricated during the early portions of last century, contained from .996 to .997 parts of pure gold in the 1,000; or $99\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of perfectly fine gold. This is as high quality as that obtained by the present means of separation in our refineries by acids. Assays made at the Mint of the United States show in the old gold ducats of Hungary .986, Sweden .977, Bavaria .980, Denmark .988, Hanover .993, the Netherlands .980, and Poland .984, fineness varying from $97\frac{1}{2}$ to 99 per cent. of fine metal. The last minute fractional remnants of silver separate with great reluctance from gold in refining, and it is only during the delicate and diminutive operations of the assay department, that perfectly pure or fine gold is attained in practice. The golden ounce (.995) of Naples and Sicily, the toman (.991) of Persia, the mohur (.982) of Bengal, and the sequin (.958) of Egypt, show a fineness from 96 to $99\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; and demonstrate that the ancient principle in coinage was a close approximation to perfect purity in the metals, and that their calculations of value were simply based, as now, upon the fineness and the weights.

The doubloons, or golden ounces, of Spain, Mexico, and the South American States, vary in fineness from .813 to .872 thousandths, or from $81\frac{1}{2}$ to 87 per cent., their alloy being silver alone. The moidore of Brazil, the joannese of Portugal, and the imperial of Russia, approach the British standard of coinage; or $91\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Yet the varieties in the proportionate values of such coins are still too great in these different sections of the commercial world, to permit any reciprocal interchanges at equal rates.

All coins, however varied in fineness, weights and characters of alloy, continue to be graduated with great care in each country; but in exchange with others, require extended, complicated and dilatory calculations of arithmetic, which, by general consent among nations, could readily be dismissed.

If the actions of national mints were submitted to a reformed code of regulations, organized by practical men, for general uniformity in the basis of measures for fineness, weights, alloys and decimal calculations, without altering the national superscriptions, devices, forms and designations, advantage surely would be gained for all.

Such uniformity once established by a few nations, other measures of accordance might be expected to ensue, for the promotion of general exactness in other weights and measures—for useful and equitable correspondences.

The practices of mints require the greatest accuracy in all their details; and unless an exact uniformity exists in their original basis of calculations, no identity of values can prevail—in coins. The mints require the rigid accord of mathematical,

chemical and mechanical actions, which being known to prevail in the separate coins of each nation, can, by concerted action, as surely be made to exist in the general coinage of all.

If it is held important, that neighboring portions of the same country should comprehend and employ the same currency, no logical argument can prove a contrary effect among intercommuning nations, for commercial transactions. The gold coins of the United States, easily and instantly recognized in Louisiana, Maine, Michigan, Kentucky, South Carolina and California, could as readily be understood and valued in France, Germany, England, Spain, Russia and Sweden—Mexico, Brazil and Peru—Egypt, Persia, India, China and Japan—and all their coins as readily credited here. Such a plan of concert once established by a few, the practice of remelting coins of either, thus consenting, would be abandoned at once, among them.

Impressions, forms, dates, or places of manufacture, do not affect value, which is regulated solely by the amount of perfectly pure gold, or fine silver, in coins, jewelry, ores or dust. By the employment of the most easy decimal calculations, their values can be reduced or augmented, and the exact worth of every 1,000th, 100th, 50th, 10th, or 5th, of any basis of value be generally established, and everywhere correctly comprehended by all men who are taught decimal arithmetic—or have sense and fingers.

Such easy uniformity of fabrication might introduce the practice of testing large amounts of gold and silver coins, or bullion, by weight; which, in the larger transactions of commerce, would prove the best remedy against counterfeits and false tokens.

We all comprehend the inconveniences resulting from any depreciation in the value of paper money in adjacent States; still the similarity of five, ten, twenty and fifty dollar notes, enable us to exchange, when they will pass by a recognized public confidence.

The dissimilarities in the coinages of different nations, expose merchants to some of the inconveniences of uncurrent paper, which can be avoided by correspondence, explanations, and a very moderate yielding, by each, to slight changes in mint practice.

The mining interests of the Southern States are concerned to reduce charges upon their industry; which all unnecessary impediments, in ascertaining the value of their products, multiply upon them. As coins, and as merchandise, gold and silver require to have their quality of fineness carefully designated, in order to decide upon their value, like an inspection of flour, tobacco, or fish. Condition—regulates the character and worth of all—for use, manufactures or exchanges.

Since the original introduction of civilization from Africa and

Asia into Europe, the nations who employ coins, as representatives of value, have never consulted together upon any mutual accommodation in coinage. They have each fixed upon some convenient, or casual intermingling of the metals, to represent their standards; which, like those exhibited in war, present different forms, with distinct emblems and colors. The varieties of value in these standards, existing among different friendly nations, instead of being at once recognized by the eye, like their flags, can only be distinguished by separate calculations of arithmetic, to verify their character—in every market. They are private signals, promoting difficulties rather than convenience among nations, not always differing in language.

In matters of money, we may, surely, all advance with success, under one truthful, peaceful and common standard.

All foreign coins, notwithstanding the special care of each separate nation in producing them, are now degraded, as bullion abroad—recklessly melted and then issued under a new standard—a kind of civilized piracy, which should be abated for the benefit of all, with the general consent of all.

The enormous exportation of coins, constantly witnessed from ports in the United States, may induce attention to this subject, connected with continued applications for increased means, to augment and promote so impolitic a procedure.

The original laws, for the organization of the mint of the United States, could not have anticipated the immense influx of precious metals, consequent upon our recent discoveries and lately acquired possessions, which have impaired all former calculations of proportion, distribution and values.

As raw material for export and foreign exchange, the values of gold and silver can be estimated without coinage, like those of any other products of industry or of art; but as a currency required by our constitution, for permanent domestic exchanges and home convenience, other considerations are essential.

The annually increasing coinage of gold, beyond our domestic necessities, appears in opposition to true economy. Being solely estimated as bullion in foreign countries, it is re-melted by millions at the mints and refineries in Europe, without special advantage to them or to us.

While there exists in Great Britain a consent to the importance of an entire change in systematic coinage, and this subject is in active discussion, connected with decimal calculations for moneys and mintage, much valuable information may be gained or communicated; and a liberal scheme of mutual accommodation and concert—now be generally approved.

The community of interests, which the advancement of liberal knowledge and useful arts produce, by commercial intercourse, lead us to trust they contribute to promote peace and good will among men of different nations and languages.

ART. II.—THE MOUTHS OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

[Nearly two years ago, we published in the REVIEW a very instructive paper upon this subject, which was illustrated by a diagram showing the extent of the obstructions which existed, and consequent damage to the commerce of the West seeking an outlet in that quarter.

Since the appearance of that paper, and owing to the pressing memorials of the citizens of New-Orleans, Congress have ordered an exploration of that region, and appropriated a large amount for the deepening of the channels of the river.

We have before us a Report made by a special Board, detailed by the War Department, which is so full of interest and instruction to the people of the whole Southwest, with all of their immense commercial interests, that its appearance in the pages of the REVIEW cannot but meet with general approval. The Board consisted of Captains Latimer and Barnard, Major Chase and Lieut. Beauregard. They refer, as other sources of information upon the same subject, to the following official papers:—Report of Major Delafield to General Gratiot, Chief Engineer, July 6, 1829; Letter from Secretary of War, with various documents on the subject, February 24, 1837; Report of A. Talcott to Major Chase, corps of engineers, October 31, 1838; Annual Report of Col. J. J. Abert, topographical engineers, December 30, 1839. Report of J. G. Totten, Chief Engineer, to Secretary of War, February 13, 1839; Report of Mr. C. Ellet to War Department, January 8, 1851.]

SIR:—The Board convened by your order of the 18th ult., for the objects therein specified, respectfully inform you that, having visited and examined the passes of the Mississippi, and having, by collecting and comparing the results of former surveys and investigations, by personal inquiry, and by all other means in their power, obtained all possible information bearing upon those objects, they submit the following report:—

The necessity and feasibility of deepening one or more of the passes of the Mississippi is not a new subject. It is one almost coeval with the settlement of the country itself; yet it is only of late years that projects to accomplish this object have been seriously entertained.

By reference to ancient charts, it would appear that the Northeast Pass, for a period of at least seventy years, maintained a depth of twelve feet on its bar. This depth was found more and more inadequate, as commerce rapidly increased after the transfer of the country to the United States, and about the year 1835 public attention was strongly attracted to the necessity of increasing the depth in this and other passes.

With a view to this object, a preliminary survey was made, under direction of Capt. W. H. Chase, corps of engineers, who based thereon certain projects and estimates for increasing the depth of water, by closing several of the passes and dredging the channel through the northeast and southwest bars.

Congress appropriated for these objects the sum of \$250,000; but the subject was deemed so important by the War Department, that it was referred to a special Board of Engineers, who,

simultaneously with the experiment of dredging, ordered a new and very thorough survey of the delta, with the view of obtaining more extensive and accurate data on which to base a project, and also to furnish a standard to which engineers could in future refer, in investigating the changes which are continually taking place in the channels and at the mouths of the passes.

The survey was executed with all desirable precision and scientific skill; a powerful dredging boat and tenders were procured, and the experiment of dredging commenced. Unfortunately, the survey and building of dredging machinery nearly exhausted the sum appropriated; and Congress having failed to make further appropriations, the experiment was necessarily abandoned before it had progressed sufficiently to test its efficacy. Thus the operations of this period failed to cast any light upon this important question now before the Board, viz.:—"What is the proper method of securing a depth of water over the bars adequate to the wants of commerce?"

As the Northeast Pass became more and more innavigable, it was found that the Southwest, which had heretofore been little used, answered sufficiently well the existing wants, and it has continued to answer them, without material inconvenience, till a recent date.

During the past year, however, public attention has again been attracted to this subject. Vessels carrying large and valuable cargoes have been detained for weeks and even months on the bar; and it has been stated that the Southwest Pass has, in its turn, commenced shoaling, while the Pass à l'Outre has commenced deepening.

The Board do not find evidence to confirm the opinion that any deterioration has taken place at the Southwest Bar. The survey recently made by officers of the Coast Survey exhibits fully as much water as existed at the time of Talcott's survey, and the personal examinations of the Board give the same result; and if at any period in this interval there has been reported to be more water than now exists, the Board believe the fact may be accounted for by extraneous and not natural causes.

The tonnage and draught of ships visiting this port have, for years past, been constantly increasing, and they believe that the circumstances which have recently excited public attention are owing rather to an accidental accumulation of large vessels than to any gradual shoaling of the bar.

The Board, in their inquiries, found no reason to believe that this pass has, since anything has been known of it, changed materially its character or its depth; and they think they find reasons for this permanence of character, which will be stated hereafter.

But the Board, though having little fear of a sensible or ra-

pid deterioration of this pass, are, nevertheless, of opinion that it is not adequate to the existing and prospective wants of commerce; and it is this inadequacy, and not its deterioration, which has now made it necessary to look for some efficient means of deepening this or other passes.

The Board, while they feel the immense importance of the task imposed on them, are yet more conscious of the extreme difficulty of the problem submitted to their consideration.

They find in the various and conflicting theories and projects put forward by eminent engineers; in the exceptional character of the subject itself; in the want of analogy to anything heretofore undertaken, and consequent want of precedent; and in the extreme uncertainty attending analogous operations on a much smaller scale, great cause to distrust any opinion they may form themselves, and equal cause to distrust the projects of theorists who have made all their observations and facts subservient to a preconceived opinion.

They have examined attentively, however, the various projects which have been submitted to the public, and they have sought information wherever it was to be found. They have themselves adopted no theory as to the formation of these bars, or as a basis of project for their removal, for they believe the subject too difficult, and the facts collected too few, to justify any theory; nor have they attempted to confute the projects and theories of others.

In visiting the passes, the Board proposed to themselves no extensive investigations or minute study, for these would occupy time they could not spare; but simply, by personal observation, to fix the existing state of things in their minds, and to inform themselves as to some few important facts, to which the labors of others had not been directed.

The recent Coast Survey maps rendered additional surveys unnecessary.

The Board spent eight days at the passes, during which they visited each one, and occupied themselves mainly in studying the changes which had taken place between Talcott's and Sands' surveys—the nature of the formations exhibited, the character of the bottom, particularly of the Southwest Pass and Pass à l'Outre, and the general slope of the bottom of the Gulf seaward for several miles from the passes. Their operations will be found more fully detailed in the journal, and illustrated by the accompanying sketch of the passes.

Some observations were made on the current; but to these they attach no further importance than as exhibiting the fact that at all stages of the tide they found, inside the bar and over the bar, an outward current at the bottom—less, indeed, than at the surface, but still very considerable.

They made but one observation at much distance (say at seven fathoms) outside, and this when the outward current was sensibly checked by the young flood tide; and here they found the outward current confined to six or seven feet of the surface—all below that being salt water and motionless, or having little sensible motion. This is but a single observation, and at the dead low-water stage of the river.

The slope of the bottom outwards, to a distance of three miles, and to a depth of twenty-five fathoms, was found extremely gradual and uniform, being scarcely forty feet to the mile.

Some description of the passes themselves, with their physical peculiarities, may seem necessary. Notwithstanding the number of passes enumerated, and the complicated figure presented by a map, the true and essential division of the river may be considered as only into two great passes, the Northeast and Southwest; for the South Pass, originating at the same point, is now quite insignificant. The Southwest Pass takes from its origin a course of southwest by south, and pursues it with little deflection to its bar. Though throwing off several small bayous, it exhibits no tendency to divide; and to this uniformity in its course and maintenance of its volume the Board are disposed to attribute the permanence of depth upon its bar; for the pass presents no evidence of having ever carried more or less water than at present through its channel, and there is no evidence on record to induce them to believe that, as far back as the discovery of the country, there was less water on its bar than now. That it was not noticed nor used prior to having the aid of steam for ascending the river, may be attributed to the superior facilities of ingress and egress from the eastward offered by the Northeast Pass, and by the fact that the prevailing winds, from north round to southeast, are adverse in this pass, while they are mostly favorable in the other.

By the experiments of Prof. Forshey, it would appear that the Southwest Pass discharges about one-third of the entire volume of the river, the remaining two-thirds being discharged by the other passes and bayous and by the "Jump."

In addition to volume of water and permanence of depth offered by the Southwest Pass, it has great width of channel and a fine anchorage and harbor both inside and outside of the bar, and in this respect has greatly the advantage of Pass à l'Outre.

A single glance at the chart will show that vessels lying outside awaiting opportunity to cross, are well protected from the violent winds from the northwest, north, round to east, while a simple shifting of position of a few miles will give them shelter from the southeasters; though with the latter winds, and consequent rise of tide, they can always cross the bar.

The Northeast Pass takes at its origin a direction north of east, but it soon divides its main branch, flowing to the south of east, and forming the Northeast and Southeast Passes, while a smaller branch continues nearly the original direction, constituting the Pass à l'Outre. But the tendency to subdivision exhibits itself in all the derivations of this pass—the main stem, besides throwing off large bayous, divides with the Northeast and Southeast Passes.

The Pass à l'Outre throws off near its origin the large bayou called Pass à Cheval, which again subdivides into numerous smaller bayous, and the Pass à l'Outre itself now exhibits in the division of its mouth, which has fully developed itself since Talcott's survey, the same tendency. A phenomenon so constant in its exhibitions, contrasted with the reverse character of the Southwest Pass, seems to indicate some assignable cause. The Board think they have found such a cause in the prevailing winds, which, from north around to southeast, set either directly or obliquely into the mouths of these eastern passes, forcing the discharging current first to one side, then the other, causing the formation of middle grounds and consequent division. The effects of prevailing winds may also be traced in the configuration of the promontories at the mouths of each pass.

The Board deem it needless to speak particularly of the Northeast and Southeast Passes; they have become innavigable, their bars having but seven or eight feet of water, and the main stem, from its separation from Pass à l'Outre, having decreased in depth and width. A shoal out of water now connects the island at this point with the western bank, and trees are growing where ships passed a few years since.

As the Northeast Pass has shoaled, the south channel of Pass à l'Outre has increased in depth, and probably at the expense of the former. Sands' chart exhibits over thirteen feet water—nearly as much as on the southwest bar—and were it not for its extreme narrowness, it is probable it would now be as much frequented as the Southwest; but the width of this thirteen-feet channel scarcely exceeds, by the chart, fifty yards for about a mile, and there is two and a half or three miles of shoal to be passed over before a depth of eighteen feet is obtained. The north channel of Pass à l'Outre has, by Sands' chart, over nine feet of water, but it is wider, and it would appear to discharge a volume equal, or nearly so, to that of the south channel. The bottom of these passes is extremely soft, a single man being able to force a pole down ten or fifteen feet into the bottom with little exertion.

This pass is becoming now much frequented; being to the eastward and to the windward, it offers advantages to vessels going to or coming from the eastward, and in this respect has

the advantage over the Southwest; but it is quite deficient in the harbor advantages possessed by the Southwest, being exposed on the outside to winds from northwest around to the southeast, or all the prevailing winds, while inside it possesses little width for anchorage or for passing. While the balance of advantages are in favor of the Southwest Pass, the Board deem it very important that both of these passes should be open.

Natural causes have thus far worked to deepen Pass à l'Ostre. The Board believe that nature may be aided by simple constructions, which they will allude to hereafter.

A few words are necessary concerning the new outlet called the "Jump," or Wilder's bayou.

This outlet, about ten miles above the head of the passes, on the right bank, originated in 1840 from the river's overflowing and breaking through the narrow strip of land confining it, and in the course of a few years it became an outlet of near a quarter of a mile in width at its mouth, and sixty feet depth; and owing to its rapid descent to the Gulf, it drew through it a large volume of water at high stages of the river. So rapid was its current, that passing vessels were, in some instances, drawn into it, and it was for a time considered an object of danger. But the Gulf outside being extremely shoal, mud-flats formed in every direction, which soon became islands, obstructing the flow and confining the water to narrow channels or bayous, which, though having considerable depth, finally discharge themselves into the Gulf over flats having no more than six or eight inches of water on them.

At present, in looking through the "Jump," the eye meets with an unbroken expanse of dense willow growth, extending for miles in every direction; and where, but a few years ago, the equally unbroken expanse of the Gulf presented itself.

The flow through the "Jump" is now diminishing, and will probably soon become insignificant. There is no evidence nor probability that its existence affected any one of the passes more than another; and none that the Southwest Pass has been injured by it. The latter pass was never better than when the "Jump" was in its full activity.

The South Pass, not before noticed, has never been accessible to sea-going vessels. The water on its bar has diminished, from Talcott's survey to Sands', from eight feet to six feet. The volume of water discharged has been diminished; an island and extensive shoal has formed at its origin, and little labor would be required to stop it altogether.

Before closing this description of the passes, the Board think proper briefly to refer to the very remarkable agency at work at their mouths, and which appears to play an important part in accelerating the projection of these passes seaward; they allude

to the upheaving of land by some subterraneous power. This upheaving exhibits itself on each side, and generally in advance of the bars, and sometimes in deep water in the main channel over them.

All the islands projected beyond the points of main-land present indisputable marks of this upheaving. They are entirely distinct in character from the marsh formation constituting the main-land; are usually from six to ten feet high, and sometimes as high as fourteen feet above ordinary tides. In many of them springs of salt water are found, through which bubbles of gas escape. These springs, in overflowing, deposit a sediment of fine clay, by which a cone of considerable elevation and base is formed. These islands, in progress of time, are apparently undermined by the sea, or washed down by rains; a marsh formation succeeds, which connects itself with the main-land. The Board refer to others for theories of this agency, but merely mention its undeniable existence, and their belief that this upheaving hastens the formation of land, and consequent projection of the passes seaward.

The Board have deemed these remarks indispensable to a just understanding of the opinions they have formed, and of the recommendations they are about to make. The secretary has proposed a series of questions, which they have found impossible to answer categorically, simply because they believe they do not, in the nature of things, admit of such answer; and they would remark, that the experimental system of operations they propose is based upon the trial of well-known and plausible projects, or upon a few indisputable and universally admitted facts.

To the first question, "Which of the passes is, in your opinion, the most convenient, or offers the greatest facilities to vessels entering and going out of the river, and your reasons for this opinion," they answer that, if compelled to the choice of a single one, they would select the Southwest; but they state that there are weighty reasons for keeping open both this pass and the Pass à l'Outre, and that their reasons are stated in their foregoing accounts of the advantages and disadvantages of these passes. If the experiment for improvement is to be confined to a single one, they recommend the Southwest for its application.

Second question: "Which can be opened, and kept open, with the least difficulty and cost? and the probable cost of each." The Board refer to the foregoing and following answers. They have selected the Southwest for experiment in the first instance; and nature would suggest a somewhat different system of operations at Pass à l'Outre from that recommended at the Southwest. Their views on these points will, therefore, be best understood after answering the following question:—

Third question: "The breadth and depth which should be given to the proposed channel, so that it will be of sufficient capacity to accommodate the wants of commerce; the same to be clearly indicated on a map of the pass." The Board consider 18 feet in depth and 300 feet in width the least allowable. Such a channel is indicated on the sketch herewith of Southwest Pass; but they strongly recommend, if found practicable, a depth of 20 feet.

Fourth question: "What process is recommended for the execution of the work; to what extent, and how, may the present means (deducting a portion to meet contingent expenses) be made to test the chances of success? And, as the law requires that the trial shall be made under a contract, state all the points deemed indispensable to insist on in said contract; to this end present the rough draught of the instrument." This question involves the real difficulties of the case. The following projects are well known, and have appeared to merit their consideration:—

1. Stirring up the mud at the bottom by suitable machinery, throwing it into the current, whereby it is to be swept off.
2. Dredging.
3. Jetties projected from the shores, to contract the current over the bar.
4. Closing the useless passes.

The first has had its advocates among eminent engineers; and they are now supported in their opinions by individuals who base their belief in its success upon their long experience in towing vessels to and fro over the bar.

While the members of the Board differ in their individual opinions on this subject, they consider it a measure which can be tried most readily, and at least expense; and an opportunity is offered, by the proposals of the Towboat Association, to test it, without expense to the United States in case of its failure. They therefore unanimously recommend the trial by the opportunity thus offered, and by which the *present means* may be applied with tolerable chances of success, and in no other way; but they feel that they would not discharge their duty in limiting themselves to this. They believe that nothing but experiment can prove whether or not any project will be efficacious; and they believe the importance of the subject demands that no experiment should be left untried.

The Board, therefore, recommend that an appropriation be asked adequate to continue the same process, if successful, to producing a channel of 20 feet depth; or, if unsuccessful, to be applied to other processes.

This makes it necessary to allude to other projects, in order enumerated.

The operation of dredging is believed to have much in common with the process just recommended. The causes of failure for the first may be the same as for the latter. This is a point, however, which would best be determined by the officer in charge of the works. So far as we are able to ascertain, the opinions of those who had charge of the experiment in 1839 were favorable.

An estimate herewith, marked A, carefully made, gives \$99,700 for the cost of cutting an 18-foot channel in ten months. To cut the same in five months would require additional machinery, swelling the amount to \$150,000. To keep the channel open the balance of the year is provided for in the above estimate.

This operation being much less costly than the construction of jetties, the Board, though, as before, differing in their individual opinions as to the probability of success, unanimously recommend that an appropriation of \$150,000 be asked for, to be applied—

1st. To the continuance of the process first recommended, if found successful, to increasing the depth of the Southwest Pass to 20 feet.

2d. To dredging an 18-foot channel through the same pass, if the first process (stirring up the bottom) fails, and if the causes of failure, as observed by the engineer, are not such as to create a strong probability that the same causes will operate in the same manner upon the operation of dredging.

3d. In case of failure of the Towboat Association to perform their contract, and it should not be thought expedient to resort to dredging, the above sum, together with the available existing appropriation, to be applied to the construction of jetties, as the Secretary of War may direct.

The project of jetties is based upon the simple fact that, by confining the water which now escapes uselessly, in lateral directions, to a narrow channel over the bar, the depth of this narrow channel must be increased; in other words, the existing bar must be cut away. A new bar will form beyond the jetties; how soon we do not pretend to estimate.

But all experience at these passes has shown that the depth on any one bar is greater as the volume of water discharged by the pass is increased. The contraction of the same volume to a narrower channel is analogous to throwing a greater volume into the same channel. Hence, it is reasonable to believe that the new bar would have considerably more water than the old, and that this increased depth would continue for a considerable period of time.

The rate of annual expenditure for extension of these jetties the Board are unable to estimate. The Board recommend the

trial of the project in case all efforts of stirring up the bottom or dredging fail.

Estimates for jetties at the Southwest Pass and Pass à l'Outre—the former amounting to \$315,000, the latter to \$95,000—are presented herewith, &c.

The 4th plan of closing passes cannot be applied to any extent for improvement of the Southwest Pass, since, without stopping the main trunk of the Northeast Pass, (which is not recommended,) no considerable additional volume can be thrown down the Southwest Pass; (this plan may, however, be applied to Pass à l'Outre, as will be seen hereafter.)

The closing of "the Jump" may indeed be thought expedient hereafter, but the Board have not considered it.

In relation to that part of the 4th question referring to form and conditions of contract, &c., the Board state that they have recommended a contract for approval of the Secretary; and if that is not approved, they see no possibility of making another likely to produce any result, *with existing means*, and therefore they recommend no other.

Fifth question: "What is the opinion of the Board as to the permanence of the contemplated improvement, supposing it once finished; and if liable to deterioration, what shall be the means of prevention, and what the annual cost thereof?"

The Board offer no opinion as to permanence or cost of maintenance of the works they recommend, merely stating that, if the operations are not found successful enough to be maintained at a reasonable cost, they may be considered as failures, and should be abandoned. Experience and observation will alone answer this question.

The Board have answered the Secretary's questions as categorically as possible; but they consider it their duty to go somewhat further. They have stated the advantages of Pass à l'Outre, and the importance of having a ship channel there.

Natural causes have increased considerably the depth of water through this pass. These causes may continue to operate. But the Board cannot entertain a very sanguine hope that a greater depth than now exists will be *speedily* attained by natural causes alone.

The quantity of water discharged through the main pass is not adequate to the maintenance of a great ship channel.

Stirring up the bottom, dredging, or jetteeing, if successful elsewhere, may succeed here; but the Board still think that the useless water voided by the South Pass, by Pass à Cheval, by the north channel à l'Outre, and, to a certain extent, by the Northeast Pass, should be applied here. They therefore recommend the gradual and successive closing of the north channel of Pass à l'Outre, of Pass à Cheval, of the South Pass, and a partial deflection of the Northeast Pass.

They consider it necessary that these operations should be successive and gradual, that the main stem may have time to accommodate itself to the increased volume.

An estimate for these objects is herewith submitted. Its amount, \$30,000, is not great, and the Board recommend that a special appropriation should be asked, to be applied immediately to these objects. See paper marked C.

And they also recommend, that whatever process should hereafter be found successful at the Southwest Pass, should also be applied to Pass à l'Outre.

The above projects comprise all that seems to the Board to offer any chance of success, and they believe that the importance of the subject demands that all should, if necessary, be tried.

If they all fail, the Board have no fear that the passes will be in any worse condition than they are now. If they succeed, the object will be gained.

But in case of failure, the Board believe there is yet a plan to fall back upon, viz., a ship canal. The Board do not allude to it with the view that the project should now be entertained, but merely to express their belief in the practicability, and to recommend that the engineer charged with these works should be directed to employ such time as he can spare to investigation of the subject, having reference to the possibility of a future recurrence to this project.

And the Board further state, that reasonable conclusions as to the success of any one of the projects here presented, can only be derived from the constant presence and study of the engineer, and they therefore recommend that he should be directed to devote his whole time to this work alone, with regard not merely to the work actually under execution, but to the succession and propriety of ultimate projects.

Art. III.—ON THE COMMON ORIGIN OF THE HUMAN RACES.

THE subject of the unity of the human race—that is, that all human beings have sprung from one common origin, Adam and Eve, and that all present and past nations, however different, physically and mentally, must be referred back to Adam and Eve, as their progenitors—is one which has long agitated the minds of men. The world is divided into two great schools on the subject, diametrically opposed to each other. The first is that of the *Theologians*, who, basing their arguments on the Sacred Scriptures, contend that all the living creatures of our globe were created at one common point in Asia, and that they have thence been disseminated over its wide surface by degrees,

and adapted to the varied conditions in which they have ever been found. This is the doctrine of the Sacred Scriptures, as commonly interpreted. The second is that of the learned *Naturalists*, whose faith in the received doctrine has been shaken by their extensive ethnological, geological, and palæontological researches; whose constant study of the great Store Book of nature, and their thorough antiquarian explorations in Egypt, in Asia, and in America, have given ethnology the form of a science, the conclusions of which are based upon facts, and facts alone.

For the last half century the works of the celebrated Dr. James Cowles Prichard—remarkable for their voluminousness and learning—have been the text-books of the theological ethnologists; and no very elaborate attempt has been made to produce a refutation of his theory until the present time. The work of Dr. J. C. Nott and Mr. Geo. R. Gliddon, long announced, has at length appeared, containing the substance of all that ethnological science has to offer in refutation of the theory of the unity of the human race. It is entitled, "*Types of Mankind; or, Ethnological Researches, based upon the Ancient Monuments, Paintings, Sculptures, and Crania of Races, and upon their Natural, Geographical, Philological, and Biblical History.*" It is a work of great learning and research, and is, in fact, a systematic treatise on *Ethnology*, considered as a science; and it is written, not in the style of controversy—in which *ex parte* views are too often taken, and facts concealed, or, at least, passed over in silence—but in a manner suited to the dignity of science. It deals in facts, irrespective of mere authority, whether that authority be human or divine, so called. Its avowed course is to develop facts, let the conclusions which follow be what they may.

As the subject of the unity of the human race is one of universal interest—of vital moment to the religious world, and of an intensely absorbing character to all—we will endeavor, in this paper, to give a sketch of the leading arguments, as enunciated in the remarkable volume before us.

In the present controversy with regard to the unity of the races, religion will still come off, not vanquished, but purified by truth—with all its great truths and realities brighter than ever, for the simple reason that truth is a thing which cannot be vanquished. The present great contest, however, will strip religion of all that is *not* truth, and show that what is truly revealed truth is in perfect correspondence with all of the works of nature—that there is not a fact that is developed from the earth, the sea, or the starry heavens, that is not in perfect harmony with every word that God ever uttered. "Man," says Dr. J. C. Nott, "can *invent* nothing in science or religion but falsehood; and all the truths which he *discovers* are but facts or

laws which have emanated from the Creator. All science, therefore, may be regarded as a revelation from HIM; and although newly discovered laws or facts in nature may conflict with religious *errors*, which have been written and preached for centuries, they never can conflict with religious *truth*. There must be harmony between the works and the words of the Almighty; and wherever they *seem* to conflict, the discord has been produced by the ignorance or wickedness of man."*

The great head of the modern Naturalist school of ethnologists in this country is Professor Agassiz. We shall begin with him. This great naturalist discovers, in "*the close connection there is between the geographical distribution of animals and the natural boundaries of the different races of men*," a powerful argument in favor of the theory of the origin of life which claims many distinct creations. He declares that the boundaries within which the different *faunæ*, or natural combinations of animals, are known to be circumscribed upon the surface of our earth, coincide with the natural range of distinct types of man; and that among the animals which compose the *fauna* of a country, we find types belonging exclusively there, and not occurring elsewhere; as, for example, the ornithorhyncus of New Holland, the sloths of America, the hippopotamus of Africa, and the wolverines of the arctic regions. Hence he infers that the different *faunæ* had separate creations, including the different human races. He assumes that distinct types of men and animals have ever occupied their present geographical positions; and that this is proved by the historical records of the world, so far back as they go.

Another argument of Agassiz, in proof of his theory, is, that "the earliest emigrations recorded in any form show us man meeting man, wherever he moves upon the habitable surface of the globe, small islands excepted," which could not have been the case had man emanated from a single spot; for then, as he wandered forth upon the earth, he would have encountered the people of no nation. He also attaches importance to the fact, that the earliest races, occupying originally those portions of the earth which have been the seat of the most advanced civilization, claim to have been *autochthones* of their respective countries. "This claim," says he, "is so universal, that it well deserves more attention. It may be more deeply founded than historians generally seem inclined to grant."

In regard to the evidence of a community of origin, derived from the affinities of the languages of different nations, he observes: "The evidence adduced from the affinities of the languages of different nations in favor of a community of origin is of no value, when we know that among vociferous animals every species has its peculiar intonations, and that the different

* Types of Mankind, p. 61.

species of the same family produce sounds as closely allied, and forming as natural combinations, as the so-called Indo-Germanic languages compared with one another. Nobody, for instance, would suppose, that because the notes of the different species of thrushes, inhabiting different parts of the world, bear the closest affinity to one another, these birds must all have a common origin; and yet, with reference to man, philologists still look upon the affinities of languages as affording direct evidence of such a community of origin among the races, even though they have already discovered the most essential differences in the very structure of these languages."

Of Australia, whose animals differ so completely from those of other parts of the globe, Agassiz observes: "The isolation of the zoological types of Australia, inhabiting as they do a continent partaking of nearly all the physical features of the other parts of the world, is one of the most striking evidences that the presence of animals upon the earth is not determined by physical conditions, but established by the direct agency of a Creator."

In the question whether all the different races of men are of the same *species* or not, it is important that we should have a correct definition of the term *species*. Prof. Agassiz adopts the definition of Dr. S. G. Morton, who characterizes species as *primordial organic forms*—distinct forms of organic life, the origin of which is lost in the primitive establishment of the state of things now existing; and *varieties* are such modifications of the species as may return to the typical form, under temporary influences. Adopting this definition, Agassiz declares that "the differences existing between the races of men are of the same kind as the differences observed between the different families, genera, and species of monkeys or other animals; and that these different species of animals differ in the same degree, one from the other, as the races of men;" and even that "the differences between distinct races are often greater than those distinguishing species of animals, one from the other." The Chimpanzee and Gorilla, distinct species, "do not differ more, one from the other," says he, "than the Mandingo and the Guinea negro;" which together, he adds, "do not differ more from the orang than the Malay or white man differs from the negro." "I maintain distinctly," he says, "that the differences observed among the races of men are of the same kind, and even greater, than those upon which the anthropoid monkeys are considered as distinct species."

Still, after all this, Agassiz contends for the unity of mankind. "These conclusions," he says, "in no way conflict with the idea of the unity of mankind, which is as close as that of the members of any well-marked type of animals; and whosoever will con-

sult history, must remain satisfied that the moral question of brotherhood among men is not any more affected by these views, than the direct obligations between immediate blood relations. Unity is determined by a typical structure, and by the similarity of natural abilities and propensities; and, unless we deny the typical relations of the cat tribe, for instance, we must admit that unity is not only compatible with diversity of origin, but that it is the universal law of nature." We presume that all will agree with Prof. Agassiz, in this kind of unity; which, however, loses sight entirely of the great question of dispute—the origin of the human races.

Such is an outline of the views and arguments of Prof. Agassiz, on the great question of the unity of the human race—views which Messrs. Nott and Gliddon have made the text on which they have written their great ethnological treatise. We shall now proceed to examine the manner in which they have elaborated the subject.

They commence with the geographical distribution of animals and of races of men, as affording a conclusive argument against the origin of the races. They show that the different regions of the earth have their distinct faunæ, circumscribed within certain limits; and that even this holds good with respect to the animals of the sea. Some are peculiar to the northern seas; others to the southern; and others to the tropical. Nor do they intermingle with each other, but are each confined within a certain range, as if originally intended for it. The various species of whales and dolphins, despite their prodigious powers of locomotion, are confined each to regions originally assigned them; and there is no degree of latitude in which we do not find species peculiar to it. "All mammals on the globe," says M. Jacquinot, "have a habitation limited and circumscribed, which they never overleap; their assemblage contributes to give to each country its particular stamp of creation. What a contrast between the mammals of the Old and New World, and the creations so special and so singular, of New Holland and Madagascar!"*

The old doctrine that the temperature of countries is a sure index of the color and of certain other physical characters in the human races, is met by presenting the evidence drawn from the monuments of Egypt, and from other sources, in favor of the permanence of distinctly marked types of mankind, such as the Egyptians, Jews, Negroes, Mongols, and American Indians. Black races are not confined to Africa; others equally black are met with in the temperate climates of India, Australia, and Oceanica, though differing in every attribute except color. A black skin would seem to be the best suited to hot climates; and

* JACQUINOT; *Considérations générales sur l'Anthropologie*, (Voyage au Pôle Sud) Zoologie, 1846.

for this reason we may suppose that a special creation of black races took place in Africa. The strictly white races lie mostly in the temperate zone, where they flourish best; and they certainly deteriorate physically, if not intellectually, when removed to hot climates. Their type is not, in reality, changed or obliterated, but they undergo a degradation from their primitive state, analogous to the operation of disease.* The inhabitants of the Arctic regions are dark-skinned; while the American Indians, and the Mongols of Asia, are found in all latitudes. The same, in respect to color, is true of quadrupeds and birds. Climate seems to have but little to do with color. It gives the darkest hue to man and to some animals in the torrid zone; while to birds and flowers, in the same zone, it gives the most brilliant hues.

And not less conigned to their particular native region of the earth are the races of men. The negro, like the elephant and the lion of his hot latitude, cannot leave it with impunity. He would soon become extinct if he persisted in dwelling far north or south of the tropics, within the temperate zones; and the same is true of the white races. Though they venture from ambition and enterprise into all climes—under the burning equator and within the arctic circles—yet it is only at the sacrifice, annually, of an immense number of human beings. Man, no more than animals, can violate with impunity the laws of geographical distribution. The Esquimaux can no more live in our temperate regions, than we in his. Dogs and other animals brought from the Arctic circle by the American exploring expeditions soon died; and the same is true of animals brought hither from the tropics. The Africans, the Mongols, the Polynesians, the Esquimaux, and the American Indians have remained for thousands of years where history first found them, and where, for self-preservation, they have been and still are compelled to remain. The naturalist contends that there is no proof that they were ever anywhere else—that they are just where God first planted them.

The theory that climate has produced all the diversities of the human races finds no support in the entire experience of man. If we go back to the remotest ages of the world, we still find the same races as now. The monuments of Egypt prove, beyond a doubt, that 4000 years before the Christian era the Negro had the same complexion, the same hair, the same lips and feet as now, and that he differed then as much from other races as now. There is not the shadow of a proof that he was ever whiter, or the white man ever blacker, than he now is. If the races were once one and the same, a going back of several thousand years ought to develop evidences of that sameness; but those evidences are totally wanting. The oldest skulls dug from the American mounds are no more like the most ancient skulls of

* Types of Mankind, p. 63.

the other continent than those of the present day. And yet they ought to be, if all these diversities of races are but the work of time and climate. There is no more evidence that the Negro, the Indian and the Mongol were once one and the same, than that the horse and the ass were once the same—the ox and the buffalo—the dog and the wolf. And what reliable data are there upon which we can hang even the shadow of conjecture, that if we were all to live 5000 years, the races would, in that time, change any more than they have during the last 5000 years?

Pursuing further our inquiry into the diversities of the human race, we find in New Holland men, animals, birds, insects, plants, etc., entirely unlike those of other parts of the world—we find a black race, but otherwise entirely different from the Negro. His features, woolly head and elongated heel, there disappear. If we go farther on, we come to Van Dieman's Land, where, in a climate like that of France, we find a race different from that of New Holland, and more like that of the Negro of Africa, though farther from it and in a temperate climate. In New Zealand, and throughout all Polynesia, we find still a different race, the Polynesian, characterized by a countenance almost oval, smooth, black hair, and a color light brown.

In India we meet with races of all shades from fair to black, who have been living together from time immemorial. "The Rohillas, who are blondes, and situated south of the Ganges, are surrounded by the Nepauleans with black skins, the Mahrattas with yellow skins, and the Bengalees of a deep brown; and yet the Rohillas inhabit the plain, and the Nepauleans the mountain."^{*}

Such are some of the facts illustrating the fallacy of the arguments drawn from climate, in accounting for the different races. Color cannot be cited as a distinctive characteristic alone of the races, for we find in the true Caucasians—in the Finns and Slavonians, Celts, Iberians, Italians, Greeks, Arabs, Egyptians, Hindoos and Malabars—all having oval faces, smooth hair, and large facial angles, all the intermediate shades from white to black. The inhabitants of Malabar are as black as Negroes. There are many examples to prove that races have preserved their color unchanged for ages, while on the contrary it is impossible to show that the complexion of a pure primitive stock has been altered by climate.[†] This is illustrated by the physical history of the Jews, whose type has been permanent for at least 3000 years. And there is no reason to believe that the Hebrew race sprang from, or ever originated any other type of man.[‡] In the present state of ethnological science, we have such an array of facts confirming the views above expressed, that it is difficult to resist them.

^{*} DESMOULINS: *Des Races Humaines*, p. 169. *Types of Mankind*, p. 71.

[†] *Types of Mankind*, p. 71—2.

[‡] *Ibid.*

Agassiz, who has given to the world the most complete view of the geographical distribution of animals, shows not only "that there are numerous centres of creation, or zoological provinces, for our present pending geological epoch, but that these provinces correspond in a surprising manner to those of former geological epochs; thus proving that the Creator has been working after one grand and uniform plan through myriads of years, and through consecutive creations." "It is satisfactorily ascertained at present," says he, "that there have been many distinct successive periods, during each of which large numbers of animals and plants have been introduced upon the surface of our globe, to live and multiply for a time, then to disappear, and be replaced by other kinds. Of such distinct periods—such successive creations—we know now *at least about a dozen*, and there are ample indications that the inhabitants of our globe have been successively changed at more epochs than are yet fully ascertained."

The geological argument of Messrs. Nott and Gliddon, in opposition to the theory of a common origin of animals, is briefly as follows:—"In the earliest formations but few and distinct patches of land having emerged from the mighty deep, the created beings were comparatively few, simple, and more widely disseminated; but yet many distinct species, adapted to localities where they were brought into existence, are discovered. In the more recent fossil beds, we find a distribution of fossil remains which agrees most remarkably with the present geographical arrangement of animals and plants. The fossils of modern geological periods in New Holland are types identical with most of the animals now living there. Brazilian fossils belong to the same families as those alive there at the present day; though in both cases the fossil species are distinct from the surviving ones. If, therefore, the organized beings of ancient geological periods had arisen from one central point of distribution, to be dispersed, and finally to become confined to those countries where their remains now exist in a fossil condition; and if the animals now living had also spread from a common origin, over the same districts, and had these been circumscribed within equally distinct limits, we should be led to the unnatural supposition, argues Agassiz, that animals of two distinct creations, differing specifically throughout, had taken the same lines of migration, had assumed finally the same distribution, and had become permanent in the same regions, without any other inducement for removal and final settlement than the mere necessity of covering more extensive ground after they had become too numerous to remain any longer together in one and the same district. Now, it would be certainly very irrational to attribute such instincts to animals, were such a line of march possible; but the very possibility vanishes, however, when we

reflect upon the wide-spread physical impediments opposing such migrations, and that neither the animals nor plants of one province can flourish in an adverse one. No Arctic animals or plants can be propagated in the tropics, nor *vice versa*. The whole of the monkey tribe belong to a hot climate, are retained there by their temperaments and instincts, and cannot by any ingenuity of man be made to exist in Greenland. The same rule applies to the aboriginal men of the tropical and the Arctic regions."*

To the question, "Have all the individuals of *each species* of animals, plants, &c., descended from a single pair?" the reply is as follows:—"Were it not for the supposed scientific authority of *Genesis* to this effect, the idea of community of origin would hardly have occurred to any reflecting mind, because it involves insuperable difficulties; and science can perceive no reason why the Creator should have adopted any such plan. Is it reasonable to suppose that the Almighty would have created one seed of grass, one acorn, one pair of locusts, of bees, of wild pigeons of herrings, of buffaloes, as the only starting-point of these almost ubiquitous species? The instincts and habits of animals differ widely. Some are solitary, except at certain seasons; some go in pairs; others in herds or shoals. The idea of a *pair* of bees, locusts, herrings, buffaloes, is as contrary to the nature and habits of these creatures, as it is repugnant to the nature of oaks, pines, birches, &c., to grow singly, and to form forests in their isolation. In some species males—in others females predominate; and in many it would be easy to show that, if the present order of things were reversed, the species could not be preserved—locusts and bees, for example: the former appear in myriads, and by far the greater number of those produced are destroyed; and though they have existed for ages, a naturalist cannot see that they have increased, nor can he conceive how one pair could continue the species, considering the number of adverse chances. As regards bees, it is natural to have but one female for a whole hive, to whom many males are devoted, besides a large number of drones. Agassiz gives this striking illustration: "There are animals which are impelled by nature to feed on other animals. Were the first pair of lions to abstain from food until the gazelles and other antelopes had multiplied sufficiently to preserve their races from the persecution of these ferocious beasts? So with other carnivorous animals, birds, fishes, and reptiles. We now behold all their various species scattered through land and water in harmonious proportions. Thus they may continue for ages to come."†

We have alluded to the physical history of the Jews, as illustrating the fallacy of those who ascribe to the influences of time

* Types of Mankind, pp. 72, 73.

† Types of Mankind, p. 74.

and climate all the diversities of races, and who maintain that those influences alone were sufficient to convert out of the original pair, by gradual transformations, through a long series of ages, the Malay, the Mongol, the Negro, and the American Indian. If, however, these transformations did actually take place, it must have been longer ago than the creation of the world, adopting Usher's Chronology; for we find on the monuments of Egypt, 3,500 years before Christ, full-length figures of men belonging to the white, black, yellow, and red races; thus proving that at that remote period even the same diversity of races existed as now—that the Negro was precisely the same as now, and just as different from the Caucasian. The Egyptians were then so old a nation that they had already made the races a study, and had their ethnology.

The physical history of the Jews, too, presents a race that has preserved, amid all its trials and vicissitudes—all its migrations and changes of climate—a type unchanged. The countenance of a Jew cannot be mistaken, let it be seen where it may, because the Jewish type is distinct and primordial. It is true, that attempts have been made to establish the existence of a race of Jews in Malabar, that, through the changes of successive ages, had finally lost the Jewish type and assumed that of negroes. But this is now known to be a fallacy. Dr. Prichard asserted, without proving, the existence of a race of *black Jews* in Malabar, and his assertion has been echoed through the world, and is now believed by thousands to be true; but the Oriental researches of Buchanan, Wolff, Beke, and others, prove that the *black Jews* of Malabar are only *converted Hindoos*, and of a race inferior to that of the Jews. The Rev. Dr. Claudius Buchanan, of the College of Fort William, in Bengal, under the patronage of the British government, visited and spent some time among the white and black Jews of Malabar in 1806-7-8. He traced out their history, and found documentary evidence fixing the date of their exodus from Palestine immediately after the destruction of the second temple of Jerusalem. The accounts of Dr. Buchanan go to show that "the white Jews had been living in Malabar at least 1000 years, and were still *white Jews*, without even an approximation in type to the Hindoos; and that the *black Jews* were an inferior race,"—"not of pure caste—or, in other words, adulterated by dark *Hindoos*—Jews in doctrine, but not in stock."^{*}

Joseph Wolff, a Christianized Jew, who has also been in Malabar, declares that "the *black Malabar Jews* are converted Hindoos, and at most a mixture only of the two races."[†] We might also cite Isaac Lessler and M. J. Raphall, both learned Hebrews, in confirmation of the testimony of Wolff.

^{*} Types of Mankind, p. 120.

[†] Missionary Researches, p. 308.

The Jews, too, of Abyssinia and of Timbuctoo are only converts, and not Jews by descent. Such is the testimony of Beke and of Raphall. Beke, an orientalist of high standing, in his essay read before the Syro-Egyptian Society of London, on the 8th of February, 1848, says: "There is no reason for imagining that these Israelites of Abyssinia, who are known in that country by the name of *Falashas*, are, as a people, the lineal descendants of any of the tribes of Israel." Bruce, who has been quoted on this subject, as saying that they are really Jews, is by no means positive, but expresses many doubts on the subject, and thinks that the question must be settled by future researches. These future researches have been made by Beke, and the result is as cited above. Even Prichard did not credit the narrative of Bruce.*

The opinion that our American Indians are descendants of the *ten lost tribes* of Israel rests upon nothing better than conjecture.

If we can trace back, historically, the types of different races for a period of at least 3000 years, and show that during all that time these races have preserved their peculiar distinctive types, unchanged by any vicissitudes—that the different races 3000 years ago were as different from each other and as distinct as now—and if there is no counter historical or monumental evidence that these races were ever one and the same, what is the reasonable inference? Is it not that these races must have had distinct and different origins, and that the old theory must seek some different interpretation of the Sacred Book? Now all this Messrs. Nott and Gliddon have done. They have demonstrated, historically and monumentally, a permanence of Jewish type in Mesopotamia, Egypt, Syria, Assyria, Arabia and Persia for at least 3000 years, and at the same time the simultaneous existence, in the same countries, of every variety of type and race visible there now, and shown that these varieties, during all that period, have been distinct. The sculptures of the fourth Egyptian dynasty, 2000 years before the era of Abraham, exhibit the Chaldaic type beyond all cavil.

The works of Rosellini and Lepsius, as quoted by the authors of *Types of Mankind*, show thirty varieties of the Caucasian type, exhibited on the monuments of Egypt, and referable to the 13th and 17th centuries before Christ. These varieties were just as distinct then, 3300 years ago, as now, seen in the streets of Cairo, Jerusalem, Damascus, Beyroot, Aleppo, Antioch, Mosul and Bagdad.†

We offer no apology for the length of the following curious extract from the *Types of Mankind* regarding the defects of our received Scripture chronology, and giving the opinions of our

* *Types of Mankind*, p. 123.

† *Types of Mankind*, p. 141.

authors on the subject of the great longevity of the human race in remote ages.

"The incipient history of the Israelites is indissolubly woven with that of Egypt; nor could we separate the two if we would. Although the earliest positive synchronism, or ascertained era of contact, between these people, is the year 971 B. C., viz.,—the conquest of Judea under Rehoboam by Shishak or *Sheshonk*—nevertheless there are other periods of intercourse much earlier in date which may be reached approximatively, and while, on the one hand, Egyptian monuments, so far as known synchronisms extend, bear testimony to the historical truth of Jewish records posterior to Solomon, these, on the other, furnish evidence in favor of the reliability of the hieroglyphics. The histories of Abraham, of Joseph, of Jacob, and his descendants, and of Moses, all bear witness to the antiquity, grandeur, and high civilization attained by Egypt's *Old Empire* before the birth of the first Hebrew patriarch; but when we compare the genealogical and chronological systems of the two people, as well as their respective physical types, there is really nothing in common between them. Abraham, according to the Rabbinical account, is but the tenth in descent from Noah, his birth occurring 292 years after the deluge, but, substituting the more critical computation of Lepsius, Abraham must have lived in the time of Amunoph III., *Memnon*, of the XVIIIth dynasty, about 1500 years B. C. Now, the epoch of MENES, the first Pharaoh of Egypt, is placed by the same *savant* at 3893 B. C., or some 2400 before Abraham.

"The epoch of Abraham has ordinarily, indeed, been computed, by biblical commentators, a few centuries further back than the date assigned to him by Lepsius; but we are inclined to adopt the estimate of this superior authority, for the following simple reasons: There are but five generations, viz., Isaac, Jacob, Levi, Rohath, and Amram, between Abraham and Moses; and the era of the latter is now approximatively fixed in the 14th century B. C. By adding to the latter age—assuming the Exodus, when Moses was 80 years old, at B. C. 1322*—the average duration of life for five generations, the time of Abraham falls about 1500 B. C. It may be objected that people in olden times were gifted with a longevity immeasurably greater than our modern generations, but this assumption is contradicted by a thoroughly established fact—that the Egyptians, whose ages are recorded on the hieroglyphical tomb-stones for twenty centuries before Abraham's nativity, and whose mummied *crania* of generations long anterior to this patriarch, abound, *lived no longer than people do now*. Another proof, likewise, that numer-

*Lepsius, *Chronologie*, i. p. 379. Ibid., *Discoveries*, translation, Mackenzie, p. 381.

ical errors have always existed in the Book of Genesis, is the fact, that the manuscript texts differ irreconcilably in respect to the ages of the patriarchs; while these extraordinary ages are rendered nugatory by the physiological laws governing human life. If further proof be wanted, it may be gathered from the story of Abraham and Sarah. Though *contemporary with every one of her ancestors back to Noah himself*, (all of whom, according to Genesis,* lived from 205 to 600 years,) yet Sarah, when told, in her 90th year, that she should bear a child, laughed twice, having never heard of such an occurrence! But, even admitting such superhuman longevities for the patriarchs, that does not mend the difficulty; for, after all, there are but *ten generations* between Abraham and Noah, to set off against no less than *seventeen dynasties* of Egypt, each of which included many kings, whose united ages exceeded 2000 years.

"The following is the popular view of the genealogy of Abraham:

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| 1. Shem. | 2. Arphaxad. | 3. Salah. | 4. Eber. |
| 5. Peleg. | 6. Reu. | 7. Serug. | 8. Nahor. |
| | 9. Terah. | 10. Abraham. | |

"Now, as we have stated, Abraham was not only contemporary with this ancestry, but, according to the Jewish system, 58 years old when Noah himself died; and yet, when he visited Egypt, he meets with no acquaintances nor kindred there: but, on the contrary, he finds a great empire, composed of millions of strange people; and beholds standing around him pyramids and temples, erected by this more ancient and distinct race—with records, hieroglyphical and hieratic, written in a language to him foreign, stretching far back more than 2000 years before his birth. The reasons, then, are obvious, for passing over that part of Egyptian history subsequent to 1500 B. C., and for commencing our analysis of the monuments with those of the XVIIth dynasty, (of Lepsius—XVIIIth of Rosellini,) which was contemporaneous with Abraham. Although Jewish chronicles, as they have reached us, beyond this Abrahamic point are all confusion, it will be seen that Egyptian monuments afford vast materials, bearing upon some types of mankind in Asia and Africa, whose epoch antedates, by twenty centuries, that of the *Father* of the Abrahamidæ.

"It is now known to every educated reader that the Egyptians, from the very earliest times of which vestiges remain, viz., the IIIrd and IVth dynasties, were in the habit of decorating their temples, royal and private tombs, &c., with paintings and sculptures of an historical character; and that a voluminous, though interrupted, series of such hieroglyphed monuments and papyri

* De Sola, Lindenthal, and Raphall; New Translation of the Scriptures, London, pp. 46-7; Genesis, xi. 10-26.

is preserved to the present day. These sculptures and paintings not only yield us innumerable portraits of the Egyptians themselves, but also of an infinitude of foreign people, with whom they held intercourse through wars or commerce. They have portrayed their allies, their enemies, their captives, servants, and slaves; and we possess, therefore, thus faithfully delineated, most, if not all, the Asiatic and African races known to the Egyptians 3500 years ago—races which are recognized as identical with those that occupy the same countries at the present day.”*

It would be easy to make further citations, from the work before us, to prove the permanency of the types of mankind, but these will suffice. The Egyptian monuments show, that about the time which the usual chronology fixes as the epoch of the creation of the world, and the placing of Adam and Eve in the Garden of Eden, the Egyptians were already an old nation, living among their pyramids, temples, and catacombs, in a high state of civilization. The world is no more the work of 6000 years, than Rome was the work of a day.

There are many who are disposed to doubt the antiquity of the Egyptian monuments. By the learned world their antiquity is no longer questioned. They have undergone the severest scrutiny of the ablest men of the world, and the result of such scrutiny completely falsifies all of our old chronologies.

The subject of the *hybridity of animals* is one of first importance in the question regarding the origin of races; and accordingly Messrs. Nott and Gliddon have devoted to its consideration a special chapter. The advocates of a common origin of the races conceive that the unlimited prolificness, *inter se*, of two races of animals, or of mankind, is proof positive of their specific affiliation, or, in other words, of their common origin. They contend that negroes and white men are not of different species, because, forsooth, the results of amalgamation of the two are prolific and unlimited: which, they say, is not the case with two distinct species, as the horse and the ass. Two distinct species, say they, produce an unprolific progeny, “or, at most, beget offspring which are prolific for a few generations and then run out. It is further alleged that each of our own domestic animals, such as horses, dogs, cattle, sheep, goats, hogs, poultry, &c., is derived from a single Mesopotamian pair; and that the varieties of these, springing up spontaneously in diverse climates, differ as widely as do the races of men.” Hence they derive an argument in favor of a common origin of men and animals.

Now, it is not true that different species are not prolific *inter se*. Let us take the genus *equus* (horse). Cuvier makes five species, viz.: the common horse, *equus caballus*; the dzigguetai, (*eq. hemonius*;) the ass, (*eq. asinus*;) the zebra, (*eq. zebra*;) the

*Types of Mankind, pp. 141-3.

conagga, (*equus quaccha*;) and the onagga, or dauw, (*eq. montanus*.) All of these breed freely, *inter se*. It is the same with the sheep and the goat, the hybrid progeny of which is unlimitedly prolific.* It is also the same with the different species of dogs, and with the camel and dromedary.

That our different species of dogs have been in existence for at least 6000 years, is proved by their distinct forms on the monuments of the IVth Egyptian dynasty, 3893 B. C. The same monuments show that the camel was also the very same then as now. This, then, admitting the Bible chronology, is proof positive that the different species of animals, at least—and the argument holds equally good for man—did not all spring from a single pair. According to the unity theory, the farther back we go the more alike ought we to find men and animals; but we find, in fact, that there was the same marked differences 6000 years ago as now. And this rests not alone on monumental proof, but fossil geology speaks also the same language. Fossil horses have been exhumed from different geological formations, both in the New and Old World; which fact gives an antiquity to the horse that throws into the shade that of the Egyptian monuments.

The foregoing facts respecting the prolificacy of undoubtedly different species of animals, prove that prolificacy is no evidence of identity of species—that the Negro and the Caucasian are not necessarily identical in species, because they are prolific, *inter se*.

All history and all science declare for a plurality of origins. We can discover no time, however remote, in which men and animals were not just as they are now; nor is there a solitary case on record of one race or species being transformed into another, by external causes. True religion, we firmly believe, will ever be found going hand in hand with science.

Art. IV.—THE YELLOW FEVER OF 1853.

[DR. E. D. FENNER, of New-Orleans, has published a very interesting and useful work upon this subject, of which we have obtained a copy. No one is better qualified from long experience and extensive practice to speak of such matters than he is, and we have no doubt his publication will effect much good. Having had occasion several times to refer to the epidemic of last summer in the pages of the REVIEW, an extract from Dr. Fenner will furnish some additional and striking illustrations.]

1. *Recoveries from Black Vomit*.—When well-marked black vomit is presented in a case of Yellow Fever, I consider the

* CHEVREUL, *Journal des Savans*, June, 1846, p. 357. Types of Mankind, p. 379, 80.

chance of recovery as but little better than *one in a hundred*; yet I shall be able to show quite a respectable number of recoveries from this desperate condition this year. I had two in my private practice, and several in my wards at the Charity Hospital. One of my private cases was a little Irish girl, aged about eight years; the other was a *black negro woman*. One of my cases at the Hospital was a young Spaniard, whom I shall mention more particularly under the head of *treatment*. I also saw a mulatto boy, patient of Dr. Hester, who threw up black vomit copiously during twenty-four hours, and recovered. The youngest subject of black vomit I ever saw was a white infant aged *five weeks*, who was born after the epidemic broke out. It died, as did also the mother, who was unacclimated.

Dr. Boyer, resident surgeon of the *Maison de Sainte*, informs me that there were *fifteen* recoveries from black vomit in that institution. Prof. Jones says he had *two* recoveries in private practice, and *eight or ten* at the Charity Hospital.

Dr. McKelvey says he had *three* recoveries in private practice, and some at the Charity Hospital.

Dr. Lindsay informs me he had six or seven recoveries from black vomit.

Dr. M. M. Dowler says he had four recoveries from black vomit—two women, one man, and one child six years of age. Dr. D. never knew adults to recover from black vomit before, but has known several children.

Dr. Wedderburn says he had four or five recoveries from black vomit.

Dr. Rushton says he had two cases to recover from black vomit.

Dr. Choppin, House Surgeon of the Charity Hospital, gives it as his opinion that *seven per cent.* of the cases of black vomit in that institution recovered.

Notwithstanding all this testimony to the fact of recovery from black vomit, one of the most prominent physicians of the city, who has practised here near twenty years, tells me he never knew a case of *unquestionable black vomit* in Yellow Fever get well.

I have only mentioned the names of such of my professional friends as I happened to meet with, whilst taking down these special observations. It will be the same with those to follow. I might enlarge them to any extent if I had time and space.

2. *Second Attacks of Yellow Fever.*—I mean by this, persons who have had the disease in former years. In my history of the Epidemic of 1847, I mentioned that several instances of this were observed, and the same has occurred this year. There can be no doubt that if a person have a plain attack of Yellow Fever during the prevalence of a *severe* epidemic, there will be

but small probability of his ever having it again, provided he remains in the same place; yet the rule is by no means *invariable*, as I shall presently show. If one has it, however, during a *mild* epidemic, or when there are only a few sporadic cases, his subsequent exemption will not be near so great. Thus there were numerous attacks this year among persons who had had other attacks since 1847, but not many among those who had it that year, or any previous *strong* epidemic. I am satisfied that the correct doctrine on this point is laid down in my "Report on the Fevers of New-Orleans." (See *Southern Medical Reports*, vol. 1.)

I saw no case this year which had been attacked in 1847, but several who had the disease well marked in 1848 and subsequently.

Dr. Jones informs me that he saw one case in a person who had Yellow Fever in 1847, and one who had it in 1839.

Dr. Kennedy says he never attended a case of Yellow Fever in a person whom he had treated before for that disease. Dr. K.'s experience extends over a period of twenty years.

Dr. Lindsay tells me he treated this year at least a dozen cases who said they had had Yellow Fever before—some of them in 1847; but he cannot vouch for the accuracy of their statements. He had one case this year whom he treated last year in a well-marked attack. His last attack was mild, and only lasted two days.

Dr. Moses M. Dowler, who has practised here seventeen years, says he never saw a second attack of Yellow Fever in a person whom he had himself attended, but a good many who said they had it the second time, and had been attended by others—he is disposed to believe that such instances have occurred.

Dr. W. Stone, and Dr. Sunderland also, say they never knew a second attack, and are disposed to doubt the testimony of those patients who told them they had the disease more than once. Both of these gentlemen are of opinion that second attacks of Yellow Fever are as rare as second attacks of small-pox or measles. Dr. Stone even goes so far as to think that *acclimation, once attained, is never lost by removal from localities where Yellow Fever prevails.*

It is needless to multiply quotations upon this point, as similar contradictory testimony and opinions might be obtained throughout the profession. The thing is at last reduced to a *matter of opinion*, and cannot be definitively settled. Those who have made up their minds that a person can have Yellow Fever *but once*, will not be convinced to the contrary by any facts that can be presented, and *vice versa*.

3. *Attacks upon Creoles or Natives of New-Orleans.*—One of the most extraordinary features of this epidemic is presented in the

fact that the natives of the city, *both white and colored*, have suffered severely, and many of them died of it. This is generally admitted, and beyond dispute. Children who were born since '47 have suffered most; but many born previous to that time likewise suffered, and some of them died of black vomit. I saw two Quadroon girls, sixteen and seventeen years of age, who were natives, and had never lived anywhere else—they had the fever severely, but recovered. A child, aged five years, in the same family, also had it. I attended a Quadroon boy, about eight years of age, who had a severe attack, attended with hemorrhage from the gums. I have already mentioned the case of a white infant, only *five weeks old*, that died of black vomit. It may be stated generally, that all children, and young persons in the city, who had never had Yellow Fever previously, were attacked this year. Of course there were some exceptions to this, as there are to every general rule.

I am informed that the Creoles on the coast, above and below the city, suffered much worse from Yellow Fever than those in the city, many adults having died of the disease.

4. *Attacks upon Negroes.*—This epidemic affected unacclimated negroes, or those who had never had Yellow Fever before, equally as generally as it did the white population, though not so severely. This is equally true of the mixed races generally. It is a well-established fact that there is something in the negro constitution which affords him protection against the worst effects of Yellow Fever; but what it is I am unable to say. During an epidemic he will take the fever almost, if not fully as readily as the white, but it will be altogether milder and less dangerous in its tendency. In short, it will correspond more exactly with the bilious remittent fever that prevails in the country, and requires precisely the same treatment. And yet this type of fever in the city negro must be produced by the very same cause that gives rise to malignant Yellow Fever in the white race. Occasionally we see the hemorrhagic diathesis of Yellow Fever displayed in the negro, but it is by no means common. The least mixture of the *white race* with the *black* seems to increase the liability of the latter to the dangers of Yellow Fever; and the danger is in proportion to the amount of white blood in the mixture. Very few negroes ever die of Yellow Fever in this city; but I learn that a considerable number have been lost on the plantations this year. The cause of this may readily be imagined when it is recollected that Yellow Fever never prevailed on the plantations before, and of course most of the physicians were not familiar with its treatment.

I consider the danger to negroes from Yellow Fever to be no greater than that from *bilious fever* in the country, and not *half so great as from congestive intermittent*.

Art. V.—CUBA AND THE UNITED STATES.

HOW THE INTERESTS OF LOUISIANA WOULD BE AFFECTED BY ANNEXATION.

[J. S. Thrasher, Esq., so widely known for his long residence in Cuba, for his intimate knowledge of its affairs, and for the misfortunes which subsequently attended him there, has published a letter in the New-Orleans *Picayune*, addressed to Samuel J. Peters, Esq., embracing many particulars of the most interesting character in regard to the Island. We take pleasure in giving it to the readers of the *Review*.—Ed.]

DEAR SIR,—I cannot submit the following observations upon the effect which a change in the political condition and relations of Cuba would have upon the commercial interests of New-Orleans, and the agricultural interests of Louisiana, to any one with greater propriety than to yourself. Your long-continued acquaintance with these important sources of our wealth and prosperity, and the solicitude you have ever exhibited for their increase and permanent establishment and welfare, have given you an intimate knowledge of their wants and of their tendencies, while your acknowledged judgment and experience will enable you to detect at a glance any fallacy or error which I may incur. I would submit my opinions to the scrutiny of experience, and to the test of truth.

The industry of Cuba is almost entirely absorbed in the culture of the sugar-cane and the tobacco plant, and its attendant labors; and the necessary supplies for its consumption come almost entirely from abroad. These supplies properly divide themselves into two classes; that of sustenance, or food, and that of use, or utensils and clothing; the former of which greatly preponderates in value.

The natural source of supply for the class of sustenance is the great valley of the west, as is evident from the following table of eight of its principal articles, taken from the official returns of the commerce of Cuba:—

Average of Imports for three Years, 1848-50.

Flour, bbls.	234,264	Pork, dry and wet, lb.	1,434,778
Lard, lb.	10,168,595	Jerked beef, lb.	30,566,950
Olive oil, lb.	8,451,900	Hams, lb.	2,047,406
Beef, dry and wet	502,825	Butter, lb.	685,349

The fact that New-Orleans is the great exporting port of nearly all these articles, and that it is the one most easily accessible to both the producer and the consumer, would induce the supposition that the greater portion of them are obtained from thence. How erroneous this supposition is, will be seen in the following classification of the foregoing table:—

Whence Imported and Rate of Duty.

From United States.		Duty.		From other places.		Duty	
Flour, bbls	5,642	\$10 81	bbl.	228,002	\$2 52	bbl.	
Lard, lb.	10,193,370	4 30	qtl.	121,225	4 30	qtl.	
Olive oil, lb.	—	2 87	"	8,451,900	57	"	
Beef, lb.	359,161	1 75	"	143,664	1 75	"	
Pork, lb.	1,322,655	2 86	"	112,123	2 16	"	
Jerked beef, lb.	—	1 96	"	30,566,990	1 17	"	
Hams, lb.	1,228,443	3 58	"	818,963	3 58	"	
Butter, lb.	619,107	4 77	"	66,252	4 77	"	

Here we find that unequal fiscal impositions change the natural current of trade; and that flour, instead of being brought from the cheapest mart in the world, is sought on the other side of the Atlantic: that olive oil of the most inferior quality is enabled to compete largely with lard for domestic purposes; and that of 34,531,959 pounds of meats consumed, only 2,890,259 pounds, or a fraction over eight per cent., is imported from the United States; while butter and pork, being subject to an equality of fiscal exactions, are imported to the extent of more than ninety per cent. from this country.

In contemplating the commerce of Cuba, there is another point worthy of our dispassionate attention. Under its present excessive fiscal burdens, prices are maintained at a point that materially diminishes consumption. The mean price of flour there at this time is \$16 per barrel, that of lard 15 cents a pound, olive oil 12 cents, beef 7 cents, jerked beef 6 cents, hams 11 cents, and butter 25 cents a pound. I do not hesitate to say, and I believe every unprejudiced mind will agree with me, that with a tariff that should not exceed one dollar a barrel on flour, and one cent a pound on lard and meats, not only would the revenue of the Government be increased, but the commerce of the island, and the welfare of its inhabitants, would be vastly augmented.

The following table of comparative consumption at present mean prices, and estimated consumption at mean prices, which would leave an abundant margin for profit and charges, I do not deem in the slightest degree exaggerated:

	Mean price.	Present consump.	Mean price.	Estimated consump.
Flour, bbl.	\$16	234,264	\$10	500,000
Lard, lb.	15c	10,168,595	11c	25,000,000
Olive oil, lb.	12c	8,451,900	12c	3,500,000
Beef, lb.	7c	502,825	6c	20,000,000
Pork, lb.	8c	1,434,778	7c	10,000,000
Jerked beef, lb.	6c	30,566,950	6c	10,000,000
Butter, lb.	25c	685,349	20c	2,000,000

In this estimate I assume that flour would double in quantity, and the consumption would be entirely of American product; that lard would not only experience its natural increase of con-

sumption from the diminution of cost to the consumer, but that it would displace in a great measure the inferior olive oil that now competes with it; and that the consumption of meats would undergo a moderate increase, excluding in a great degree the very poor article of jerked beef now imported so largely from Buenos Ayres, in consequence of its less cost to the consumer.

The great advantages which the market of New-Orleans presents for this commerce, would undoubtedly attract to itself by far the largest portion of it; and a moderate calculation demonstrates that the increased value of trade which would accrue to its merchants by a change to a liberal fiscal system in Cuba, would not be less than twenty-five millions of dollars annually, or nearly one-fifth of their present export trade.

The effect which a change in the political condition of Cuba and her relations to the United States would have upon the great staple of Louisiana, cannot be submitted to the same severe calculation; but deeming, as I do, that misapprehension pervades the public mind on this point, I would submit, with due deference, the following observations:

The present aim of the people of Cuba is to establish, through a successful revolution there, a free government, and to secure by this means the right of self-government, and a permanent safeguard against the present nefarious system of importing large numbers of savage negroes from Africa, which menaces the future safety of society in that island.

No man there dreams that this revolution, however rapid and successful it might be, can be effected without a temporary interruption of the industrial labors of the country, and a subsequent temporary diminution of its productiveness.

The duration, or the ultimate effect of this disturbance upon the supply and the prices of sugar, now become an article of necessary consumption in the world, cannot be estimated by any process of calculation. That its present effect would be to diminish the production and to enhance prices, no one can doubt.

The establishment of a free government in Cuba could not produce any immediate prejudice to the sugar planting interest of Louisiana, for it would not disturb in any way the fiscal protection which the present tariff extends to it.

It is the subsequent admission of that Island as one of the States of this Union, which is supposed to nurture disaster and ruin for the sugar planters of Louisiana.

I will not deny my fixed belief that the vast majority of the people of Cuba desire the admission of their country to the benefits of this confederacy, when it can be attained with honor to themselves as a people, and with a due regard to their social institutions and interests.

But I do not entertain the belief that this event is pregnant with ruin, or even with injury to the sugar planting interest of this State; and to such as suppose that such a result would follow the admission of Cuba into the Union, I would suggest the following reflections.

The product of sugar to the acre in Cuba differs very slightly from that in Louisiana, while the difference in the amount produced per hand is even less than the difference of product to the acre, and is probably in favor of the Louisiana planter from his improved system of culture, and better care and feeding of his hands.

The great elements of the less cost of production of sugar in Cuba than in this country, consist in the superior cheapness of labor, and the lower value of land there. The average value of field hands in Cuba is \$500, while in this State their value is \$1200; and the mean value of land is well known to be far less than here. In these great items consist almost the entire advantage which the planter of Cuba possesses over him of Louisiana. In other respects he labors under disadvantages; for instance, the cost of his supplies, which is greater from his greater distance from their place of production.

The first great result of the establishment of a free government in Cuba, or of its admission to this confederacy, would be the immediate cessation of the African slave trade, and the appreciation in value of the slaves there consequent upon the cutting off of this source of cheap supply.

Next in the scale of economic results attending the admission of Cuba to the Union would be the equalization of the value of slaves. They could not remain at an average value of \$500 there, while they bore that of \$1,200 here, and freedom of intercourse between the two countries existed. They would either advance in value in Cuba or decline here. As the numerical preponderance is so great on the side of this country, it is a legitimate supposition that by far the greatest effect would be produced upon the smaller mass in Cuba, and that consequently their value would advance there.

Such an equalization in the value of labor in this country and in Cuba would contribute in a great degree to an equalization of the cost of production of sugar in each, increasing it in Cuba and diminishing it in Louisiana, in the exact proportion of its effect upon the value of labor respectively.

That a great increase in the value of land in Cuba would follow the admission of that island to the benefits of this confederacy, I presume no one doubts. Such a result would contribute also to augment the cost of its agricultural products, thus removing another of the important constituents of the product of cheap sugar there.

The increase in the cost of production of this staple in Cuba would be a far more permanent and efficient protection to the sugar planter of Louisiana, than the present fiscal impost upon sugar; while so long as Cuba is enabled to produce it at less cost than Louisiana, and the desire in the North to obtain cheap sugar exists, the danger to the sugar planting interest in this country will not only remain, but may continue to increase.

The effect of great changes in the value of labor upon agricultural products is notably exemplified in the course of the culture and the price of coffee.

Cuba was formerly a coffee exporting country. Subsequently to the partial suppression of the slave trade under the treaty between England and Spain, the average value of negroes in Cuba was, for a long period, from \$400 to \$450. Brazil continued the slave trade, and from her proximity to the coast of Africa, and the abundant supply of slaves, their average value in her markets fell to from \$300 to \$250.

The coffee culture requiring no expensive machinery, or other outlay than that for hands, was largely entered into there, and Brazil was enabled to compete successfully with coffee producing countries. She could undersell every one else, and the mean price of coffee in her ports fell to six cents a pound. Cuba, with her dearer labor, could not produce it at this price, and her coffee fields were abandoned, and her labor transferred to other and more remunerating employment.

On the 14th of November, 1850, the Emperor of Brazil issued the edict establishing measures for the final suppression of the slave trade in the empire, and its result is shown in the following extract from the report to the British Parliament by the select committee on the slave trade:

"The evidence before your committee proves that the importation of slaves into Brazil in 1847 was 56,172; in 1848, 60,000; in 1849, 54,000; but that in 1851 it had diminished to 3,287, and in 1852 to 700, of which last importation a considerable portion had been seized by the Brazilian Government."

This cessation of the supply immediately enhanced the value of labor in her markets, and under the increase of the cost of its production the price of coffee began to depreciate in her markets, and now it stands at a mean of ten cents, with a prospect of gradual but continued advance.

But the coffee planters of Cuba had been ruined, and died in poverty, while their slaves passed into other hands, and their fields now lie fallow or have been sold to other uses. A new generation has grown up, skilled in new labors, and though the enhancing value of labor in Brazil should continue to enhance the price of her staple product, she will still have the markets of the world to her sole benefit. Great economic changes are not

produced except by violence, or under the long-continued action of powerful causes.

There is another argument of great weight bearing upon the question of the admission of Cuba to this Union, which should not be forgotten.

While the equalization of the cost of the production of sugar in Louisiana and Cuba would bring to the Louisiana planter a permanent protection, the admission of Cuba to the Union would make the United States the great sugar grower, as it is the great cotton grower of the world. Under the increasing power of our moral influence, relaxations of the fiscal regulations of other countries (nearly all of which box sugar as a luxury) would be obtained, and its consumption thereby vastly increased to the great benefit of the producer. The results that would flow from such an attainment cannot even be estimated.

If these views are correct, as I believe they will be found, upon a careful examination, to be, not only is there no danger to the sugar planting interest of Louisiana from the admission of Cuba to this confederacy, but great benefits will accrue to that interest upon its consummation.

So long as Cuba continues in her present condition, the Louisiana planter will be continually menaced by a cheap sugar producing community on one side, and an earnest desire on the part of all the other members of the confederacy to obtain their supplies at a low cost. One State, Ohio, has already begun the struggle against Louisiana, and has passed resolutions instructing her representatives in Congress to urge upon the Secretary of the Treasury that sugar and molasses be put upon the list of articles to be imported free of duty.

In this war of interests Louisiana stands alone. How long she will be able to maintain the struggle successfully, can only be a matter of conjecture. The ultimate result cannot be doubtful even to the most sanguine advocate of fiscal protection to the sugar growing interest.

There is another greater and more immediate danger to this interest, one which it would seem to me is not properly appreciated in this country.

The Spanish government in Cuba has declared that its duty is to increase the supply of labor in that island at all hazards. A new code for the government and discipline of free laborers has been instituted, and great exertions are being made under it, with the favor of the Government, to bring in European, Indian and Asiatic laborers. Whatever the motives of the Government may be, its declared policy is to reduce the price of labor.

In pursuance of this idea, it is now seeking to establish a system of African apprenticeship, and offers to the planters in

Cuba that it will give them apprentices to labor for a series of years, at prices most inordinately low; and that if they will sustain the Government in the measure, it will introduce one hundred thousand negroes in one year. In the mean time the slave trade is stimulated and encouraged in every way, and at this moment is carried on there with an activity that has not been equalled since 1840, when twenty thousand negroes were brought in.

If this policy is successfully established and the cost of labor reduced to \$200 per hand, as the Spanish Government of Cuba argues it will be, what protection will the present duty on sugar in this country afford the Louisiana planter against the almost costless sugar of Cuba?

Five years of such competition would suffice to ruin every sugar planter in this State. They would follow the coffee planters of Cuba in poverty to the grave. Though the ruin of Cuba should then follow, as it doubtless would, and her now fertile fields be given up to thousands of semi-savage Africans, could Louisiana then re-create her sugar growing interest? And if she did re-create it, would its present possessors enjoy its fruits? No man can believe they would.

These views, which I present in all candor, induce me to believe that so far from the admission of Cuba, as a sugar growing region to this Union, being in any way prejudicial to the same great interest in this State, its consummation is the only measure that will confer stability upon the culture of the sugar-cane here, and conduce to the permanent welfare of the planting interest of Louisiana.

The benefits of the measure to Cuba, in an economic point of view, will be equally great, if they do not exceed those of Louisiana. An augmentation to more than double the present value of every slave and a four-fold increase in the value of her lands will confer great individual wealth upon vast numbers of her people, and replace many-fold the undoubted sacrifices necessary for her revolution.

The effect of her admission to this confederacy upon the body politic in Cuba are well and truthfully asserted in the following words of one of her most illustrious sons:

"There will she find peace and consolation, strength and protection, justice and freedom; and, resting upon these solid foundations, will in a short period exhibit to the world the portentous spectacle of a people rising from the most profound degradation, and passing with the rapidity of the lightning's flash to the highest point of greatness."

Art. VI.—COMMERCE OF THE BLACK SEA.

In the present state of affairs, the information contained in the following paper, relative to the trade, the produce, and the general position and resources of the extensive provinces leading on the Black Sea, will, we hope, prove interesting. It is, beyond question, intrinsically important, and we feel, therefore, that no apology is requisite for the length to which the article runs.

The general value, extent, and importance of the Black Sea trade, is, we believe, less understood by our legislators, and merchants, and manufacturers, than it should be. Centering, for the most part, in the hands of a class of foreign merchants, no general statistics or data have been accessible. We think it, therefore, highly important to place before the public such geographical details and commercial statistics, connected with the Turkish and Russian ports, and our own and foreign trade therewith, as we have at this moment readily at command. It is only by information of this kind, reliable and authentic, that the public mind can be disabused of an impression, held in some quarters, that we have little concern in the disputes between Turkey and Russia, and that we are engaging in a merely chivalrous quarrel, having no bearing or identity with our commercial interests. The facts and figures we shall now adduce will, we trust, utterly remove this misconception, and serve to show that even if the balance of European power, and the principles of justice were set aside, we have yet a *commercial* interest in staying the ambitious projects of Russia, and keeping her within her allotted boundaries. Every contest she has hitherto waged has resulted in an acquisition of fresh territory, and it is high time that the other great European Powers should protect the weak from such aggression. The ports of the Black Sea are numerous and important, and form the outlets of vast and fruitful countries, whose produce needs some market. The States of Wallachia and Moldavia, the rich fields of the Danube, Persia, Georgia, and even Russia, Siberia, and Turkey, carry on their principal trade through this great inland sea. But if its shores and waters are to be disturbed continually by the hostile fleets and armies of a daring and ruthless power—seeking dominion with an arrogant and unscrupulous hand, waging war on neutral States, massacring people without pity, when moored in their very harbors—it is high time that England and her allies should step in and stay the wrong of the oppressor, and teach him what are the duties of power and civilization, in this

age, devoted to the reign of peace and the extension of arts and commerce.

Shall the grain cease to be cultivated in the fruitful countries bordering on the Black Sea, because an autocrat wishes a few million more acres for his vast domain? Shall the numerous flocks and herds be no longer tended for the advantage of nations at large, requiring their tallow and fleece? Shall the timber forests run to waste, or shall the interchange of commodities be carried on, to the mutual advantage of each country engaged in the trade? This is one of the questions to be resolved by the present appeal to arms. Great Britain has nothing to lose in any result, save her share of the expenses of the war, being thoroughly independent of Russian supplies, which form one of the most minute items of our commerce. But other contemninous States might suffer materially, if the fable of the wolf and the lamb were carried into reality. And we think even Mr. Cobden will be free to admit, on careful examination of the figures we are about to cite, that Turkey and Egypt, to us, viewed commercially, are worth the trade with many Russian empires. Besides the agricultural produce of its coasts, the Euxine teems with seals, porpoises, sturgeons, dolphins, mackerel, mullet, bream, and other fish, mostly of the same kind as those caught in the Caspian and Sea of Aral. There are, however, few fisheries established along its shores, though where they do exist they are extremely productive.

Even France carries on a much more profitable commerce with Turkey than with Russia. According to documents recently published by the French Government, the total amount of her trade with Turkey was £3,280,000 in 1851, and £3,360,000 in 1853; with Russia, £1,680,000 in 1851, and £2,880,000 in 1852.

The Trade Report for Galatz and Ibraila, for the year 1851, shows that the total value of the importations into Galatz, up the Danube, amounted to £500,803. Among the principal items are—British cotton manufactures, £233,310; other cotton manufactures, £7,380; sugar, £57,420; coffee, £8,564; tin plates, £12,446; iron, in bars, rods, and sheets, £22,352; nails, £1,365; coals, £16,721; cotton wool (Levant), £7,020; raisins and figs, £18,437; rice, £4,103; tobacco, £6,980; earthenware, £2,380; drugs and dye-stuffs, £2,154; wool, £17,700; tallow, £12,456; dressed leather, £2,470. The total value of the importations into Ibraila, up the Danube, amounted to £396,092. Among the principal items are—British cotton manufactures, £231,330; other cotton manufactures, £12,015; sugar, £43,920; tea, £1,210; coffee, £5,572; tin, in bars and plates, £5,910; iron, in bars, rods, &c., £20,937; nails, £688;

tobacco, £12,005; earthenware, £2,440; dressed leather, £3,980.

The number of packages of British manufactures and cotton twist imported during the year was:—

Into Galatz.....	packages, 4,242
Into Ibraila.....	" 4,206

The comparison with the two former years stands thus:—

	1849.	1850.	1851.
Into Galatz.....	packages, 4,820....	3,344.....	4,242
Into Ibraila.....	" 3,558.....	4,140.....	4,206
Total.....	8,378.....	7,484.....	8,448

Showing merely that the importation of manufactures is not decreasing.

The Austrian steamers from Constantinople bring a considerable quantity of British manufactures. The manifests of these steamers might be obtained, but it would be difficult from the manifests to ascertain the nature of the packages. The agent of these steamers has, however, kindly furnished an exact note for the year 1851, showing that 1,257 packages of British manufactures were brought by them during that year to Galatz and Ibraila. Doubtless, about the same quantity has been brought by these steamers for several years past; so that it may be reckoned that the consumption of British manufactures and cotton twist in the two provinces is about 10,000 bales yearly.

Sugar, refined and crushed, imported:—

	1849.	1850.	1851.
Into Galatz.....	hhds. and bbls. 4,504.....	5,619.....	3,190
Into Ibraila.....	" 5,010.....	5,557.....	2,434
Total.....	9,514.....	11,176.....	5,624

Showing a very great falling off during the last year, and that the importation in the two former years was much in excess of the consumption. The quantity imported in 1848 was 5,340 hhds. and barrels. A probable reason for the diminution in the consumption of sugar is, that during some years the entrance into the Austrian Provinces was free, owing to their disturbed state; now the custom laws are again in force. Also the occupation, by foreign troops, of the provinces in 1849 and 1850, will tend to account for the increase.

IRON IMPORTED.

	1849.	1850.	1851.
Into Galatz.....	1,807.....	2,460.....	2,794 tons.
Into Ibraila.....	4,074.....	1,932.....	2,991 do.
Total.....	5,881.....	4,392.....	5,785 do.

COALS IMPORTED.

Into Galatz.....	3,518.....	7,434.....	14,540 tons.
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The consumption is no doubt increasing, as six steamers ran monthly last summer, between Galatz and Constantinople, in place of four formerly; and also two additional steamers ran monthly between Galatz and Skella Cladova; but the consumption has not yet reached 14,000 tons yearly, and there is a considerable stock of coals in Galatz.

TEA—Of which hardly any was received here formerly from England, has now become an article of importation, owing, it is said, to some change in the custom-house laws in Russia. The packages mentioned are bales, consisting of five or six chests, or ten or twelve half-chests, tied together. Besides what comes by sea and up the Danube, several parcels have come to Vienna overland from England, and from thence down the Danube by steamers.

The table of importations into Galatz shows that a considerable quantity of wool, tallow, and hides, have been received up the Danube. These articles come from Odessa, and pass in transit to the Austrian States, chiefly by steamers, up the river.

EXPORTS.—The total value of the exports from Galatz by sea, in 1851, amounted to £496,368. Among the principal items are wheat, 134,474 qrs., value £141,198; Indian corn, 150,682 qrs., value £280,545; rye, 71,024 qrs., value £49,716; barley, 1,364 qrs., value £682; linseed, 503 qrs., value £679; wool, £510; tallow and chervice, £7,393; planks and deals, £7,158; masts and spars, £3,500.

The total number of loaded vessels sailing out of Galatz in 1851 was 619: carrying 134,474 qrs. of wheat, 350,682 qrs. of Indian corn, 71,024 qrs. of rye, and 4,349 cwt. of tallow and sundries. 139 of the above vessels were Greek, 103 Turkish, and 173 English; the remainder were vessels of other Continental nations. 296 of these vessels sailed for England, with 35,368 qrs. of wheat, 350,682 qrs. of Indian corn, 71,024 qrs. of rye, and 1,925 cwt. of tallow. 176 vessels sailed for Constantinople with 44,984 qrs. of wheat, 20,407 qrs. of Indian corn, 6,205 qrs. of rye, and 2,424 cwt. of tallow, and the remaining number sailed for other Continental ports.

The total value of the exports from Ibraila by sea in 1851, amounted to £778,157. The principal items, 283,106 qrs. of wheat, value £254,795; 646,617 qrs. of Indian corn, value £404,136; 105,597 qrs. of barley, value £52,799; rapeseed, 2,264 qrs., value £2,943; wool, 129,896 lbs., value £4,330; tallow and chervice, 30,038 cwt., value £45,057; staves, £9,167; bone-ash, £2,291.

The total number of vessels departed loaded from Ibraila in 1851, was 1,049, carrying 283,106 qrs. of wheat, 646,617 qrs. of Indian corn, 105,597 qrs. of barley, 2,264 qrs. of rapeseed, 30,038 cwt. of tallow, and 550,039 staves, &c., &c. Of the

above, 262 were Turkish vessels, carrying 55,780 qrs. of wheat, 48,646 qrs. of Indian corn, 92,067 qrs. of rye, and 2,985 cwt. of tallow; 395 vessels were Greek, carrying 110,000 qrs. of wheat, 301,637 qrs. Indian corn, 3,048 qrs. of barley, and 17,616 cwt. of tallow; 126 vessels were English, carrying 34,385 qrs. of wheat, 119,547 qrs. Indian corn, and 585 qrs. of rapeseed; the remainder vessels belonged to other Continental nations. Of the above 1,049 vessels, 320 sailed for England with 100,593 qrs. wheat, and 286,882 qrs. Indian corn; 490 vessels sailed for Constantinople with 108,144 qrs. wheat, 181,330 qrs. Indian corn, and 104,569 qrs. barley.

As the grain trade from Galatz and Ibraila has been active during the year, it may be well to compare it with the great year of 1847, and for this purpose the exportation of grain during the last five years is noted:—

FROM GALATZ.

	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.
Wheat.....	180,860	113,605	173,797	140,652	134,474 qrs.
Indian Corn.....	318,605	143,727	258,763	122,875	350,682 "
Rye.....	26,697	28,446	60,617	52,776	71,024 "
Total.....	526,162	285,778	493,177	316,303	556,180 "

FROM IBRAILA.

Wheat.....	390,818	159,484	117,346	283,290	283,106 qrs.
Indian Corn.....	619,115	292,215	335,532	149,732	646,617 "
Barley.....	300,582	193,435	72,936	44,594	105,597 "
Total.....	1,310,505	645,034	525,814	477,618	1,035,320 "

From this it is seen that the exportation from Galatz is larger this year than it has ever been before—the increase being in Indian corn and rye, and that the exportation from Ibraila of Indian corn is larger than on any previous year; yet as the exportation of wheat and barley are both short, the total quantity exported this year was less than the exportation in 1847, but more than in any other year; the comparison standing thus—largest quantity exported in any year, excepting 1847: being in 1844, 688,081 qrs.; in 1847, 1,310,505 qrs.; and in 1851, 1,035,320 qrs.

TRADE TO THE UNITED KINGDOM IN GRAIN.

The appended tables show the number of vessels leaving Galatz and Ibraila direct for the United Kingdom, and cargoes of same in 1849, 1850, and 1851:—

Note of Number of Vessels departing from Galatz and Ibraila direct to the United Kingdom, and Quantity of Grain shipped by them.

FROM GALATZ.

	1849.		1850.		1851.
No. of Vessels.	Qrs. of Grain.	No. of Vessels.	Qrs. of Grain.	No. of Vessels.	Qrs. of Grain.
164.....	214,258	133	165,578	296	346,232

FROM IBRAILA.

133	175,516	120	149,441	320	387,475
Total 297	389,774	253	315,019	616	633,707

The exportation to the United Kingdom, therefore, has been much larger this year than on any previous year, excepting 1847; but as the tables for 1847 for Ibraila were not made up, an exact comparison cannot be made, for the number of English vessels stands thus.

Number of British vessels loaded in Galatz and Ibraila in 1847 and 1851, respectively:—

	1847.	1851.
In Galatz, number of vessels	135	178
In Ibraila	259	126
Total	394	304

The following Table shows the Ports to which the Grain of Moldavia and Wallachia was chiefly sent, during the years 1848 and 1851, both inclusive.

Note of Quantities of Grain shipped from Galatz and Ibraila, to the Ports specified, during the Years 1848 and 1851, both inclusive.

CONSTANTINOPLE.				TRIESTE AND VENICE.			
Year.	No. of Vessels.	Grain.	Qrs.	No. of Vessels.	Grain.	Qrs.	
1848	492	329,022		187	175,515		
1849	620	404,315		126	130,976		
1850	447	294,507		104	111,026		
1851	668	465,739		275	294,376		

MARSEILLES, GENOA AND LEGHORN.

UNITED KINGDOM.

Year.	No. of Vessels.	Grain. Quarters.	No. of Vessels.	Grain. Quarters.
1848	160	117,280	230	264,591
1849	101	71,556	297	389,774
1850	70	60,006	253	315,019
1851	70	66,479	606	633,707

The demand for grain, particularly for Indian Corn, for Trieste and Venice, has been much greater this year than for several previous years.

Prices at the end of each quarter during the year 1851. Highest Prices, calculated free on Board.

GALATZ.					IBRAILA.				
Mar.	June.	Sept.	Dec.		March.	June.	Sept.	Dec.	
s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.		s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	
Wheat per qr.	27 0	25 0	21 6	22 0	19 0	19 0	18 6	18 0	
Indian Corn,	15 0	14 6	15 9	15 9	14 0	13 9	13 9	14 6	
Barley,	—	—	—	—	8 4	8 7	8 10	8 10	

CARRYING TRADE TO THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Number of British Vessels as compared with Foreign Vessels departing from Galatz and Ibraila direct for the United Kingdom during the last three years:—

	1849.	1850.	1851.
British,	128	105	304
Austrian,	84	44	52
Greeks,	58	52	88
Sardinians,	7	9	57
Other Nations,	20	42	115
Total	297	252	616

This result bears out the view taken in the report for last year that the repeal of the Navigation Laws *would not be hurtful* to British vessels in this quarter, the per centage of British vessels going to England for the last three years standing thus, notwithstanding the great increase of tonnage in 1851.

Per Centage on British and Foreign Vessels loading in Galatz and Ibraila direct for the United Kingdom in the years 1849, 1850, and 1851:—

	1849.	1850.	1851.
British vessels, per cent.	43.5	41.6	49.3
Foreign vessels, ditto	56.5	58.1	50.7

And it is to be further considered that the vessels from the North of Europe have much increased in 1851, owing, no doubt, to the demand for rye and low-priced grain for the Continent, many of these vessels calling at Falmouth or Queenstown for orders for a continental port. The number of northern vessels stands thus for the last three years:—

Northern vessels departing from Galatz and Ibraila for the United Kingdom:—

	1849.	1850.	1851.
4.....	23	23	62

The number of Sardinian vessels, which formerly had been quite insignificant, has become considerable this year.

The rate of freight at which vessels could be obtained in the spring, was 9s. to 9s. 6d. per quarter, but as the season advanced, the freights rose, until, in the month of June, 12s. 6d. was paid. Again rates declined, and at the end of the shipping season they had returned to 10s. or 10s. 6d. Very few English vessels, however, come to the Danube disengaged; some are occasionally ceded by the original charterers.

The total number of vessels departing from Galatz and Ibraila, in 1851, was 1,668, carrying 16,551 men, with an aggregate tonnage of 300,845. Of the above total 534 vessels were Greek, carrying 5,388 men, with an aggregate tonnage of 112,438; 352 vessels were Turkish, carrying 4,159 men, with an aggregate tonnage of 50,234; and 304 vessels were English, carrying 2,304 men, with an aggregate tonnage of 55,625. The remaining vessels belonged to other continental nations, with the single exception of one from Buenos Ayres.

An abstract of the exports to Turkey and Russia, &c., was moved for by Lord Dudley Stuart early last session (No. 371), but it was exceedingly defective, as only giving "the principal articles." We have been at some pains to take out the whole of the imports and exports to these countries, from the more extensive tables of revenue, population, and commerce of the United Kingdom, but the year 1851 is the latest for which the returns are as yet complete.

The returns submitted on the motion of Lord Dudley Stuart gave the value of the British exports to Turkey, European and Asiatic (including Wallachia and Moldavia), at £2,581,230. Our estimate, including the Egyptian ports, makes the amount nearly one million sterling more. The exports to Russia in that return were stated at £1,289,704. Our figures make the amount the same; but we have shown the trade of the Black Sea ports as contra-distinguished from the Northern Russian ports.

OFFICIAL VALUE OF THE IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM.

	1849.	1850.	1851.
From the northern ports of Russia,	£5,333,406	4,997,126	4,083,170
From Russ. ports within the Bl'ck Sea,	289,193	219,533	331,597
	£5,622,599	5,216,659	4,414,767
Turkish Dominions proper,	£1,364,017	1,774,651	1,725,767
Wallachia and Moldavia,	14,476	13,707	13,862
Syria and Palestine,	15,627	125,986	113,110
Egypt,	839,264	1,128,912	1,115,844
	£2,223,384	3,037,256	2,968,593

OFFICIAL VALUE OF THE EXPORTS OF BRITISH PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES TO

	1849.	1850.	1851.
Russia,	£1,566,175	1,454,771	1,157,543
Turkish Dominions, inclusive of } Wallachia, Moldavia and Syria, }	£2,930,612	3,113,678	2,581,230
Egypt,	638,411	648,801	968,729
	£3,569,023	3,762,470	3,549,959

An Account of the declared Value of the British and Irish Produce and Manufactures exported from the United Kingdom to Russia and Turkey in the six years ending with 1851.

	Russian Northern Ports.	Russian Black Sea Ports.	Turkish Dominions.
1846	£1,586,235	£138,913	£2,707,571
1847	1,700,733	143,810	3,530,589
1848	1,692,006	233,220	3,626,241
1849	1,379,179	186,996	3,569,023
1850	1,297,660	157,111	3,762,480
1851	1,157,543	132,161	3,549,959

To our Manchester manufactures the Ottoman empire offers

much greater facilities for their trade; whilst Russia in 1851 took but £225,117 worth of cotton goods, the Turkish dominions and Egypt took £2,755,615.

The following quintennial averages show, that while our exports to Turkey have much more than doubled in the course of twenty years, those to Russia have remained nearly stationary:—

	Turkey.	Russia.
Average, 1831-'35.....	£1,072,639	£1,488,978
— 1836-'40.....	1,541,075	1,765,887
— 1841-'45.....	2,301,838	1,934,213
— 1846-'50.....	2,812,967	1,703,173
— 1850.....	3,762,480	1,464,771
— 1851.....	3,549,939	1,289,704

In 1831, Turkey took about 24½ millions yards cotton manufactures, entered by the yard; and 1½ millions pounds cotton twist and yarn.

In 1850, 141 millions yards cotton manufactures, entered by the yard; and 6½ millions pounds cotton twist and yarn.

Declared Value of the Articles of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures imported in 1851 to Russia and Turkey respectively:—

	Russian Northern Ports.	Russian Black Sea Ports.	Turkish Dominions.
Apparel, and haberdashery....	£7,735.....	£405.....	£73,183
Arms and ammunition.....	408.....	18.....	21,595
Bacon and hams.....	174.....	—.....	371
Beer and ale.....	11,532.....	3,365.....	3,120
Books.....	1,662.....	431.....	27,136
Brass and copper manufactures	892.....	282.....	35,333
Butter and cheese.....	1,489.....	150.....	1,372
Coals.....	63,448.....	9,883.....	68,027
Cordage.....	70.....	46.....	48
Cotton manufactures.....	25,274.....	4,983.....	2,361,139
Cotton twist and yarn.....	164,745.....	11,526.....	363,501
Earthenware.....	6,672.....	4,474.....	22,261
Hosiery, &c.....	18,569.....	20.....	26,975
Herrings.....	2,459.....	40.....	2,193
Glass.....	2,106.....	1,617.....	7,148
Hardware and cutlery.....	84,124.....	1,920.....	58,266
Hats.....	17.....	—.....	61
Iron and steel.....	65,062.....	6,152.....	100,685
Lead and shot.....	51,615.....	1,025.....	4,217
Leather, saddlery, &c.....	1,423.....	56.....	4,985
Linen manufactures, thread, &c.	6,122.....	663.....	14,046
Linen yarn.....	7,516.....	—.....	651
Machinery and mill work.....	196,403.....	19,649.....	19,239
Painters' colors.....	13,199.....	177.....	2,944
Plate, jewelry, &c.....	5,234.....	124.....	39,241
Salt.....	28,003.....	—.....	30
Silk manufactures.....	7,422.....	—.....	17,682
Soap and candles.....	141.....	521.....	922
Stationery.....	5,241.....	476.....	11,704
Sugar, refined.....	3,003.....	44,244.....	35,505
Tin and tin-ware, &c.....	22,297.....	6,281.....	42,382
Woollen and worsted yarn...	217,512.....	—.....	500

IMPORTS FROM AND EXPORTS TO RUSSIA IN 1851. 59

	Russian Northern Ports.	Russian Black Sea Ports.	Turkish Dominions.
Woollen manufactures.....	29,308.....	2,567.....	100,035
Hosiery and small wares.....	3,000.....	35.....	6,893
All other articles.....	103,729.....	12,008.....	76,665
	£1,157,543.....	£132,161.....	£3,549,959

From the last shipping returns published, it appears that the following vessels were employed in the foreign trade with the several countries named, in 1852. We include steamers as well:—

	Entries.		Clearances.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
Russia.....	2,621.....	594,895.....	1,807.....	378,739
(Of these only 951 Russian or foreign ships entered, and 655 cleared.)				
Turkey, Wallachia, Syria, &c.....	972.....	187,448.....	794.....	85,974

The entries and clearances of Russian vessels in our ports were, in—

	Entered Inwards.		Cleared Outwards.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1847.....	330 ships.....	80,420 tons.....	166 ships.....	42,600 tons
1848.....	277 “.....	76,108 “.....	190 “.....	52,777 “

Our imports from Russia, in 1851, consisted of the following articles:—

	From North-ern Ports.	From Black Sea Ports.		From North-ern Ports.	From Black Sea Ports.
Ashes, cwts.....	12,800.....	—	Fitch Skins, number.....	11,570.....	—
Bristles, lbs.....	1,684,773.....	—	Martin ditto, number.....	1,217.....	—
Butter and cheese, cwts.....	14.....	—	Seal ditto, number.....	12,769.....	—
Copper, cwts.....	175.....	—	Tallow, cwts.....	775,280.....	35,169
Flax and tow, &c., cwts.....	618,676.....	—	Tar, lasts.....	11,560.....	—
Gloves, pairs.....	240.....	—	Tobacco, unmanufact., lbs.....	7,938.....	—
Gum Arabic, cwts.....	58.....	—	Ditto, manufactured, lbs.....	1,815.....	—
Hemp, undressed, cwts.....	664,572.....	—	Wines, of all sorts, galls.....	1,499.....	—
Hides, cwts.....	8,322.....	—	Wood and timber, deals,	—	—
Iron, tons.....	3,607.....	167	boards, loads.....	188,414.....	—
Rhubarb, lbs.....	4,526.....	—	Ditto, not sawn, loads.....	47,768.....	—
Linseed, qrs.....	270,382.....	147,569	Lathwood, fathoms.....	6,781.....	—
Rapeseed, qrs.....	—	3,576	Staves, loads.....	634.....	—
Tares, qrs.....	779.....	—	Wool, lbs.....	584,067.....	5,312,139
Silk, waste, lbs.....	52,842.....	—			

Exports to Russia in 1851:—

	To North-ern Ports.	To Black Sea Ports.		To North-ern Ports.	To Black Sea Ports.
Bark, Peruvian, cwts.....	134.....	—	Rhubarb, lbs.....	860.....	—
Cassia Lignea, lbs.....	10,593.....	3,684	Rice, cwts.....	5,908.....	539
Cloves, lbs.....	14,016.....	368	Saltpetre, cwts.....	9,243.....	—
Cochineal, cwts.....	2,333.....	102	Silk, lbs.....	1,727.....	—
Cocoa, lbs.....	34,123.....	—	Silk manufactures of India, pieces.....	302.....	—
Coffee, lbs.....	1,441,871.....	215,002	Skins, Bear, number.....	280.....	—
Cotton manufactures.....	2,475.....	—	“ Musquash, num.....	56,812.....	—
Ginger, cwts.....	427.....	92	Spirits, gallons.....	72,470.....	9,897
Gums, various, cwts.....	3,455.....	125	Sugar, cwts.....	10,124.....	5,598
Indigo, cwts.....	12,791.....	119	Ten, lbs.....	6,254.....	132,882
Lead, tons.....	632.....	—	Tin, cwts.....	2,108.....	—
Logwood, tons.....	86.....	—	Tobacco, raw and manufactured, lbs.....	6,319.....	4,337
Nutmegs, lbs.....	1,566.....	1,507	Wines, gallons.....	60,205.....	3,410
Opium.....	410.....	—	Cotton wool, lbs.....	35,185,429.....	—
Pepper, lbs.....	135,866.....	237,518	Sheep's wool, lbs.....	28,401.....	—
Pimento, cwts.....	1,126.....	96			
Quicksilver, lbs.....	27,867.....	—			

Articles of Foreign and Colonial Produce exported to Turkish Dominions in 1851, including Wallachia, Moldavia, Syria, Palestine, and Egypt :—

Bark, Peruvian, cwts.....	50	Pepper, lbs.....	475,504
Cassia Ligna, lbs.....	17,620	Pimento, cwts.....	720
Cloves, lbs.....	39,108	Quicksilver, lbs.....	420
Cochineal, cwts.....	1,946	Rhubarb, lbs.....	1,236
Cocoa, lbs.....	2,908	Rice, cwts.....	5,040
Coffee, lbs.....	620,502	Silk, lbs.....	1,246
Ginger, cwts.....	97	Silk, bandanas, &c., pieces.....	6,078
Gum Shellac, cwts.....	15	Taffaties, pieces.....	2,043
Indigo, cwts.....	5,927	Spirits, gallons.....	66,961
Iron, tons.....	61	Sugar, cwts.....	5,301
Cotton and linen manufactures.....	£842	Ten, lbs.....	197,485
Logwood, tons.....	70	Tobacco, lbs.....	159,022
Nutmegs, lbs.....	3,621	Wine of all sorts, gallons.....	5,785
Opium, lbs.....	5,406	Wool, lbs.....	4,511

The history, progress, and position of the small, but powerful commercial phalanx of Greek merchants, in whose hands this large and increasing trade centres, present most remarkable features.

In 1820, the trade with the Levant, then of small extent, was wholly in the hands of British merchants. In that year two or three Greek houses were established in London, with moderate capitals and humble pretensions. Their operations, though at first limited, were highly successful, and received rapid development. Other Greek establishments were formed, and gradually the whole of the trade passed away from the British houses into the hands of the Greeks, who realized rapid, and, in many instances, colossal fortunes. The trade, which formerly was confined chiefly to the districts to which Constantinople and Smyrna form the outlets, has now extended to the valley of the Danube, to the shores of the Black Sea, to Persia, to the vast provinces of which Aleppo and Damascus are the chief marts, to Egypt, whose powers of production and consumption have only recently been stimulated into activity, and has, through the enterprise and sagacity of the Greek merchants, penetrated into distant and semi-barbarian regions, where Manchester fabrics were before as unknown as the very name itself of England.

The number of Greek firms engaged in this trade, and established in England, has increased from five in 1822, to about 200 in 1853. The imports and exports from and to the districts whose trade is conducted by the Greeks, amounted in 1822 to a mere trifle, whereas they have now attained a magnitude which, in the scale of dealings with foreign nations, gives that trade the third or fourth rank.

It is only since 1846 that the English corn trade has attracted the attention of the Greeks. As long as the extreme fluctuations in prices incidental to the sliding scale alternately enriched and ruined foreign importers, the Greeks were far too prudent to engage in so dangerous a trade; but when operations in foreign corn were freed by Sir R. Peel from fiscal influences, and brought within the natural conditions of legitimate commercial enterprise, the

Greeks embarked with their usual energy into the trade. With exceptions too insignificant to notice, all the grain imported into the United Kingdom from the Mediterranean passes through their hands.

Since the commencement of the present large dealings in Black Sea wheats, many additional descriptions have been introduced, and a trade has been opened with many new producing places. A few years ago, and Polish Odessa wheat formed by far the largest bulk of our imports from that quarter; it now constitutes barely a third. Ghirka wheats from Marianople, Berdianski, Taganrog, and other places, were imported to the extent of 350,000 quarters in 1852, against 100,000 quarters in 1851. We may mention, as a proof of the activity of the Greek importers in discovering and availing themselves of new sources of supply, that in addition to the already numerous ports from which shipments have customarily been made, cargoes of grain have recently been shipped from Bourgas, Anchialos, Rodostov, Larnaka (in Cyprus), and several other places hitherto unknown in the annals of trade.—*Mongridian on the Grain Trade.*

The supplies of Indian corn and wheat received from the Black Sea and the Mediterranean ports are shown in the following returns:—

Imports of Indian Corn, or Maize, received at Queenstown or Falmouth for Orders:—

Received in 1852.			Received in 1851.		
From	Vessels.	Qrs.	From	Vessels.	Qrs.
Galatz.....	177	293,000	Galatz.....	212	286,067
Ibraila.....	259	561,600	Ibraila.....	129	301,719
Salonica.....	27	35,640	Salonica.....	63	95,377
Odessa.....	101	219,170	Odessa.....	47	74,065
Egyptian.....	35	50,980	Egyptian.....	54	86,360
Italy.....	8	8,250	Italy.....	131	152,544
Constantinople, Malta, Trieste, and other ports in the Mediterranean.....	110	190,720	Constantinople, Malta, Trieste, and other ports in the Mediterranean.....	211	296,358
Total.....	716	1,090,340	Total.....	847	1,302,450

Odessa, Galatz, and Ibraila, it will be seen, furnished 805,000 qrs. in 1852, against 562,000 in 1851. From Italy and the minor ports there was a great deficiency.

SUPPLIES OF WHEAT RECEIVED IN 1852.

	Qrs.	Vess.
Odessa wheats, chiefly Polish, white and red, but including some cargoes of Odessa, Ghirka, and hard wheats.....	453,700	in 203
Ghirka wheat shipped at Madrianople, Berdianski, Taganrog, and other ports in the Sea of Azoff, including a few cargoes of hard wheat.....	336,050	171
Danube wheats from Galatz and Ibraila.....	85,000	76
Egyptian wheat.....	276,500	143
Roumelia wheat, chiefly shipped at Varna and Constantinople	27,650	16
Syrian wheat.....	7,000	6
Italian wheat.....	30,500	27
Sundries, shipped at Constantinople, Marseilles, Malta, &c., chiefly transshipments.....	58,000	55
	1,284,400	in 678

The following figures show the comparative quantities of grain of all kinds imported from Russian and Turkish ports respectively:—

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
	qrs.	qrs.	qrs.	qrs.
Russian northern ports....	340,633.....	363,779.....	672,257.....	
Russian ports within the Black Sea	272,735.....	589,250.....	762,160.....	805,000
	913,368.....	953,029.....	1,334,417.....	
Turkish Dominions.....	399,918.....	254,444.....	420,738.....	
Wallachia and Moldavia....	325,128.....	217,505.....	624,242.....	
Syria and Palestine.....	24,058.....	22,084.....	54,199.....	
Egypt.....	392,727.....	558,063.....	958,995.....	
	1,141,831	1,052,096	2,058,174	

By official returns it appears that the shipments of wheat from the Russian ports of the Black Sea and the Sea of Azoff last year were 4,200,000 quarters. This enormous total does not include any quantities from the newly acquired ports on the Danube, and the shipments from the north of the empire were also considerable. The stock of wheat remaining at the Black Sea ports on the 1st of January were nearly a million and a half of quarters; and it is therefore estimated that, adding the northern supply, Russia must last year have had available for exportation nearly 7,000,000 quarters.

The rates of freight ruling from the Black Sea ports in the close of 1853 were just double what they were in the previous year.

From 1840 to 1850 the exports of wheat and Indian corn from Galatz averaged nearly 400,000 qrs. per annum. But, large as these exports were, those from Ibraila in Wallachia, about twelve miles above Galatz, are still greater. The place is literally running over with corn, and there are great mounds of grain lying in the open streets for want of store-room. Ibraila is also the principal port of the Danube for the shipment of tallow. Six or eight years ago the entire exports of wheat from Varna and the other Bulgarian ports, between the Gulf of Bourgas and Kersinju, did not exceed 200,000 qrs.; now they are more than five times that quantity. And it is necessary to bear in mind, that this is exclusive of the exports, which are very considerable, from Tulcha, a port of Bulgaria, on the Danube, about forty miles west of the entrance of the Sulina mouth. The export trade of Wallachia and Moldavia did not become considerable till after the treaty of Adrianople, dictated by the Russians in 1829. Previously to that epoch, corn and provisions could only be sent to Turkey for consumption, wool being the only article that could be sent to other countries.

The history of the commerce of all great rivers may be best

told in stating that of the chief cities or towns near its mouth. As of the Mississippi and of the Ganges, the trade of New-Orleans and Calcutta is the best statement of their commerce, so of the Danube the trade of Galatz comprises the greater part of the traffic of this great European river.

In 1849, 588 vessels loaded cargoes at Galatz, and 391 in 1850. The imports of 1849 were valued at 2,000,000 dols., and the exports at 2,600,000 dols., and this principally for consumption in the two Turkish provinces of Wallachia and Moldavia.

The exports from Galatz were as follows:—

		Wheat.	Indian Corn.
1837 to 1842.....	qrs.	815,356.....	597,062
1843 1848.....	"	859,568.....	1,270,745
Exports from Ibraila—			
1837 to 1842.....	qrs.	667,909.....	224,310
1843 1848.....	"	1,862,909.....	1,448,619

The value of the exports was in 1848, from Galatz £333,271, from Ibraila £611,958. In the previous year, however, the exports from these two ports reached the large amount of £2,368,472. The number of vessels loaded at these two ports has averaged 1,500 a year for the last ten years.

The value of the imports into Galatz in 1850 was £435,000, and the imports into Ibraila £463,615. The value of the exports from the two places was about 1,000,000 sterling.

The value of the exports of Galatz in sterling, in 1847, was £775,582. They consisted chiefly of grain, tallow, preserved meat, wine, and linseed; of 662 ships loaded, 206 were dispatched to England.

The exports from Ibraila by sea, in 1847, were of the value of £1,592,944, consisting almost entirely of wheat, barley, Indian corn, and tallow.

The imports of Varna, in the same year, were valued at £214,361, and the exports at £875,708, consisting principally of grain and agricultural produce.

New Russia, as it is termed by geographers, is on the north shores of the Black Sea, and has been gained from the Tartars and Turks within the last hundred years. It consists of Catherinslav, a steppe, used as a grazing country; Cherson, to the east of Bes-sarabia, a haven on the Dnieper; with Odessa as the chief town in South Russia and the seat of trade, having an excellent dock-yard, and carrying on an export commerce of two or three millions sterling. The exports are about 200,000 quarters of wheat, 9,000 tons of tallow, and 20,000 tons of wood, besides linseed and other commodities. Nicholaieff, founded about the beginning of the nineteenth century, has a population of 20,000 or 30,000 and a dockyard.

The Crimea has many havens, and Sevastopol, with its dock-yard, is strongly fortified. Its situation, however, exposes it,

in case of a blockade, to the danger of a failure of water and provisions.

The commerce of Taganrog is considerable. It is situated on a tongue of land at the extremity of the sea of Azoff. It is a convenient situation for the trade of the south-east interior of Russia, which is carried on at little expense, by means of the Don, ascending that river to the place where it approaches the nearest to the Wolga, whence goods are conveyed overland, and then ascend the Wolga, by which channel all the produce of Siberia and the Caspian is easily conveyed. In 1836, 761 vessels arrived at this port, and the exports to foreign ports amounted to seven and a half million roubles, and the imports to nearly eight millions, whilst the imports and exports of Russian ports were to the value of about five million roubles. Theodosia, or Kaffa, a good port of the Black Sea, on the south-east coast of the Crimea, formerly belonged to Turkey, but is now subject to Russia. It has a considerable trade, and supplies the Crimea and adjacent countries. Kutsch is, however, much superior as an entrepot for the trade of the sea of Azoff.

Azoff, a port in the sea of that name, belonging to Russia, has, like Taganrog, some trade in grain and other produce of the country; but it is Taganrog that chiefly supplies the country with various foreign articles, having, with Odessa and Theodosia, the privilege of importing foreign goods by sea.

There is a very considerable navigation in the Black Sea and the Sea of Asov with Constantinople; also in the principal ports of the Crimea, from April to the end of October.

Peter the Great saw the advantages to be derived here to his empire; and although in 1711 he was obliged to surrender them, yet he did not lose sight of one day acquiring the possession and free navigation of the Black Sea into the Mediterranean. This object, however, became accomplished in the reign of Catherine II.

A most convenient port for shipping timber, hemp, and pitch, is Stuboha, near Cherson, (about thirty miles distant,) but that port does not admit of vessels exceeding 150 tons.

The port of Odessa is preferable to that of Cherson for the produce of the Ukraine; because, in the latter port, goods are obliged to be transported in lighters to the ships in the open roads, with danger from the weather, and always great risk of pillage.

Ships in general are but a few days on their passage from Odessa; but from Taganrog the navigation is not only much longer, but even tedious, and liable to many inconveniences and dangers. Merchandise may in general be embarked the whole winter through at Odessa; but from Taganrog the navigation generally ceases in the month of November, and does not commence till the end of March or April.

The Black Sea trade with Smyrna has always been considerable.

Cherson, a Russian port on the Dnieper, about twelve miles from the Black Sea, was founded in the year 1774, with the intention of making it the emporium of the trade of the Crimea; its situation is, however, not so favorable as that of Odessa, and though it exports some of the produce of the country, its chief importance consists in ship-building, and any produce for export is usually shipped coastwise to Odessa.

The navigation of the Dnieper, for fifteen miles below Cherson, is difficult, owing to the river being shallow and encumbered with sand-banks.

Odessa is situated on a bay formed by the Black Sea, thirty miles distant from the mouth of the Danube, and so late as 1793 its shores were a mere plain. It is a secure and convenient bay, with a great depth of water, consequently it is seldom closed by the frost.

The import and export trade of Odessa is shown by the following figures:—

	Value of Imports. Silver Roubles.	Value of Exports. Silver Roubles.
1845.....	8,035,000.....	18,125,912
1846.....	7,745,000.....	22,769,052
1847.....	11,113,000.....	34,765,962
1848.....	9,189,000.....	20,879,078
1849.....	10,373,360.....	19,177,626
1850.....	8,731,000.....	16,894,534
1851.....	7,710,000.....	13,235,949
1852.....	9,827,300.....	24,777,717

The importation of cotton was increased two-fold in 1852 over the preceding year; that of manufactured goods, oil, and tobacco, was also more important than in 1851. Fruit, coffee, and tea, remained unaltered; but sugar and cotton yarns exhibit a falling off. The shipments of fine and ordinary wools from Odessa, in 1852, were very considerable, amounting to 237,327 poods. The increase in the exports to England, of the last few years, is shown by the following figures:—

	Fine Descriptions.	Ordinary Donskoy.
1849.....	38,000 poods	24,000 poods,
1850.....	25,500 "	19,500 "
1851.....	22,200 "	9,000 "
1852.....	29,400 "	21,600 "

The exports to England, in 1852, from Odessa, consisted of 789,072 chetwerts of wheat, 302,747 do. of Indian corn, 122,974 of linseed, 33,160 of barley, and 1,800 of oils—55,999 poods of wool, 546 poods of tallow, the shipments of tallow having been considerably less than for many previous years. The only other exports of any consequence from Odessa are hides and copper.

The entire exports of wheat from Odessa have been as follows:—

1844.	1,315,290 chetwerts, or	986,468 quarters.
1845.	1,918,903 "	1,439,178 "
1846.	2,124,385 "	1,593,289 "
1847.	2,775,837 "	2,081,878 "
1848.	2,059,097 "	1,544,322 "
1849.	1,714,138 "	1,285,603 "
1853.	—	2,279,420 "

The exports of wheat to the Mediterranean ports, last year, were 1,572,300 qrs., and 14,630 qrs. to other parts of the continent. Of rye, barley, and Indian corn, the exports were 470,292 quarters, of which a very large proportion was sent to England, and of linseed 167,540 qrs.

The United Kingdom received, of the above-named wheat:—

In 1844.	108,288 chetwerts.
1845.	148,768 "
1846.	263,639 "
1847.	708,918 "
1848.	897,904 "
1849.	844,245 "
1852.	789,070 "
1853.	692,490 "

[One chetwert is six bushels, or three-fourths of a quarter.]

So that for about eight per cent. of the supplies from Odessa, in 1845, we received fifty per cent. in 1849.

The disposable stock of wheat at Odessa, on the 1st of January, this year, was 250,000 qrs., against 315,000 qrs. on the 1st of January, 1853. A circular from Messrs. Draper, Petroni and Co., however, states the stocks of grain lying in granary, at the outports of the Sea of Azoff, on the 1st Jan., 1854, as follows:—viz., wheat, 700,000 qrs.; rye, 131,000 qrs.; Indian corn, 202,000 qrs.; and linseed, 67,000 qrs.

NUMBER OF VESSELS WHICH ENTERED AND CLEARED FROM RUSSIAN PORTS
ON THE BLACK SEA.

	Entered.	Cleared.
1845.	2,245.	2,222
1846.	2,442.	2,432
1847.	4,201.	4,231
1848.	2,818.	2,685

Trebizond, on the south-eastern shore of the Black Sea, is the principal port of entry for that portion of Asia Minor, and through it passes most of the transit trade for Georgia and Persia. The population is variously set down at 20,000 to 30,000. The exports to Europe consist of silk, sheep's wool, tobacco, carpets, shawls, galls, drugs of various sorts, boxwood, nuts, &c.

The treaty of Adrianople, by opening the Black Sea to European ships, restored the old channel of communication between Europe and India, Persia, &c., through Trebizond; and the Rus-

sian policy of 1831, by putting an end to the immunities enjoyed by the Russian ports south of the Caucasus, has given Trebizond an importance it did not previously possess. Its principal articles of import are manufactured cottons, mostly from Great Britain; sugar, coffee, rum, salt, tin, wines, &c. More than half the articles imported are destined for Persia; and while in 1830 only 5,000 bales of European merchandise passed through Trebizond, on their way to that country, in 1835 nearly 20,000, in 1845 upwards of 30,000 packages, and in 1851 about 60,300 packages, of the value of more than £1,500,000 sterling, proceeded by the same track to the same destination. The Turkish Government determined a few years ago to construct a good wagon road from this port to Erzeroom, (distant about 120 miles,) a town of some importance, not far from the Persian frontier; but Russian influence prevented it, as the Czar wished the transit trade of Persia to pass through Georgia.

During the year 1851, the different steamers carried from Trebizond 17,300 passengers to Constantinople. Seven large steam frigates form this line; two belonging to the Sultan, each 250 horse power; two to the Ottoman Steam Company, of 250 and 350 horse power; two of the Austrian Lloyd's steamers, of 260 and 350 horse power; and one English, of 300 horse power. There arrived at Trebizond 59,008 packages of divers merchandise in transit for Persia, valued at 7,250,000 dols.; and there was received at Trebizond, from Persia, for Constantinople, 14,756 packages of goods of coarse kinds, of which 3,201 were bales of silk valued at 1,000 dols.

Twenty years ago the British trade with Trebizond, Persia, and Georgia, was almost nothing. Its present prosperity is due to the agency of the British consul at Erzeroom, Mr. Brant. This gentleman, an old merchant in the Levant, settled as vice-consul at Trebizond, and commenced there the introduction of English goods. With the view of extending his operations to Persia and Georgia, he recommended to our Government his appointment at Erzeroom, and the establishing of vice-consuls at Samsoon, Trebizond, Battoon, and at Kaiseriych in the interior; which being done, the fruits of their most valuable reports on the nature, extent of the produce and demands of the country, are seen in the very extensive and valuable trade which now exists.

The steamers all trade at Sinope and Samsoon, on their way to and from Trebizond; and, besides the great number of passengers which they take in or discharge there, the merchandise required at these places forms no inconsiderable portion of their gains. Samsoon and Sinope receive goods for the consumption of the interior of Asia Minor; and the former may be regarded as the port of Mosul and the chief places in Mesopotamia, even

as far as Bagdad. An immense quantity of English cotton goods pass through them for the interior. These are generally purchased at Constantinople, by native merchants, in small quantities, and shipped by them to the Black Sea.

EXPORTS OF RUSSIA, 1853.

	Tallow. Poods.	Potatoes. Poods.	Hemp. Poods.	Hemp Oil. Poods.	Linseed. Tschetwert.	Rye. Tschetwert.	Wheat. Tschetwert.
America	104....	—	95,142....	—	—	—	—
Belgium	—	12,489....	1,821....	—	5,568....	—	12,134
Denmark	94,883....	31,564....	162,437....	11,092....	36,126....	98,812....	44,939
England	2,356,079....	113,660....	1,434,832....	—	244,274....	15.....	305,271
France	4,729....	12,341....	8,082....	—	1,650....	—	4,359
Hanover	—	—	1,800....	—	48.....	183....	—
Hanse Towns....	27,274....	46,556....	52,409....	53,059....	—	57,191....	2,441
Holland	16,615....	167,154....	99,565....	—	58,771....	25,969....	18,025
Ireland	8,429....	—	51,963....	—	—	—	—
Mecklenburg....	4,863....	7,581....	18,301....	6,574....	—	8,159....	—
Norway	1,972....	1,561....	33,765....	3,193....	1,630....	5,726....	—
Friesland	—	2,434....	5,333....	248....	—	—	—
Portugal	—	1,720....	10,149....	—	1,130....	—	—
Prussia	53,407....	193,342....	19,079....	5,207....	21....	19,378....	—
Russian Ports....	—	—	—	2,461....	—	—	—
Scotland	108,021....	—	376,282....	—	3,515....	—	21,483
Sweden	74,435....	7,110....	35,975....	28,691....	—	41,440....	3,460
Total	2,760,511....	507,415....	2,377,025....	112,225....	332,733....	250,773....	412,111

Art. VII.—THE INDIAN TRIBES OF THE UNITED STATES.*

By act of Congress of March 3d, 1847, a sum of money was appropriated to enable the Indian Bureau "to collect and digest such statistics and materials as may illustrate the history of the present condition and future prospects of the Indian tribes of the United States." The task was confided to Mr. Schoolcraft, a gentleman eminent for the ardor with which he had pursued all investigations necessary for the proper understanding of that mysterious race, whose dwelling-place upon this earth an inevitable necessity impels us to usurp. The Fourth Part of his Report is now before us. It is the fourth of four large quarto volumes, each elegantly illustrated, exquisitely printed, and in mechanical execution doing credit to our country.

"Cui bono?" asks the political economist, standing aghast at the vast bulk of the materials thus submitted to him. "To me it is of no interest *how* the Indian came to occupy the soil of this northern continent of America. It is sufficient that I find him here, that he is in my way, and that each must take care of himself in the best manner he is able." The question *why* he is here is left to be answered by Nature. And we believe that, scat-

* Information respecting the History, Condition and Prospects of the Indian Tribes of the United States, collected and prepared under the direction of the Bureau of Indian Affairs, per Act of Congress of March 3d, 1847, by HENRY R. SCHOOLCRAFT, LL.D. Part IV., 1854.

tered through this vast Thesaurus of Indian facts, collected by Mr. Schoolcraft, some rays of light shine through to explain partially, if not entirely to solve, this strange problem of human existence.

A practical age troubles itself little about the names of its great-grandfathers. It is sufficient that they lived, did faithfully their work in this same world, and died. But the effect of their labors, and the influence of each individual mind, has passed into being, never to perish, but to produce fruit for all time. What our ancestors actually did and performed, is then all that the Present inquires of the Past. This is the essence of History.

It appears, therefore, that even in Antiquities the practical Wise Man may find much of interest. The doctrine of the Unity of Race, so long believed by the world, is ascertained to be false. We are not all descended from one pair of human beings. This fact is now as well established in the scientific world as that a horse cannot produce a cat or a lion a mouse. The negro till the end of time will still be a negro, and the Indian still an Indian. Cultivation and association with the superior race produce only injury to the inferior one. Their part in this mysterious world-drama has been played, and, like the Individual, the race must cease to exist.

Scattered over this vast Western Hemisphere from North to South, the relics of long departed races tell us that here, too, the stream of human existence has rushed, that here also has man labored, attained various degrees of civilization, worshipped after his ethnic fashion, and become extinct, just as man has acted and passed away in the (so-called) Old World. We see indications of nearly as great an intellectual development upon this continent as can be found in the ruins of Thebes, or the buried cities of Asia, while all that is now left existing is the hunter Indian, himself a type of as distinct a race from those whose possessions he now occupies as the Copt is different from the Arab, or the European from the Negro. All attempts, therefore, to connect the former inhabitants of our hemisphere with those known races of the other, a glimmering of whose history is handed down in the traditions of Europe or Asia, must seem to the rational philosopher futile, and productive of untruth. Whether America was known to the ancients or not, its former occupants were as peculiar to the soil as those of Asia, Africa, or Europe.

Entering upon the investigation of Mr. Schoolcraft's facts, with these convictions upon our mind, and leaving the discussion of this basis to those who take sufficient interest in the subject to ascertain its weight, we open Part Fourth, and proceed to ascertain how far we can accommodate the accumulation of realities there presented (not noticing his hypotheses) to a ra-

tional theory of the Indian existence. Mr. Schoolcraft divides his subject under eighteen titles, which are continued through each successive volume. They are as follows :—

- | | |
|---|---|
| I. General History. | XI. Present Condition and Future Prospects. |
| II. Manners and Customs. | XII. Demonology, Witchcraft, and Magic. |
| III. Antiquities. | XIII. Medical Knowledge. |
| IV. Geography of the Indian Country. | XIV. Literature of the Indian Language. |
| V. Tribal Organization, History and Government. | XV. Statistics and Population. |
| VI. Intellectual Capacity and Character. | XVI. Biography. |
| VII. Topical History. | XVII. Religion. |
| VIII. Physical Type of the Indian Race. | XVIII. Ethnology. |
| IX. Language. | |
| X. State of Indian Art. | |

Under these various heads, he has collected a mass of interesting information illustrative of the Indian mode of life in all its various phases, compiled partly by himself, or communicated from authentic sources. Under the head "Manners and Customs," in this Fourth Part, attention has been particularly given to the Winnebagoes and Dahcotah tribes. We have also a most full account of the Byson, its history, character, ranges, and the mode of hunting. Under the head "Intellectual Capacity and Character," Mr. Schoolcraft gives an article on Indian Pictography, from which it is evident he attaches great importance to all investigations which have been and are to be made in their unique method of communicating ideas by pictures. Indeed, in an appendix to his title "Ethnology," under the head of "Queries and Suggestions to Travellers South," he remarks : "In tracing the monumental history of our American tribes, it is desirable to scrutinize the oldest tumuli and remains for the arrow-headed character, no instance of which has ever been discovered in America. The same may be said of hieroglyphics of the Nilotic stamp. The art of recording ideas by the symbolic mode of pictures, or ideographic drawings of animals, &c., is confessedly older than either of these systems. * * * * Are we to look to the prostrated cities and temples of aboriginal America for anything which was ever characteristic of the inhabitants of the Ganges, the Indus, the Euphrates, or the Nile, at periods of which history gives us either a record or a glimpse ? If so, we must go to epochs which preceded not only the dawn of letters, but of the phonetic, the hieroglyphic, and the cuneiform character. We are driven to the utmost era of the earlier picture writing. We have found no true hieroglyphics in America. There is no instance of an inscription in the arrow-headed character. The utmost attainment of our aborigines, North and South, is the system of ideographic paintings and symbols, at once the most ancient and the most imperfect of all

known forms of recording ideas the world ever saw. If we are guided by modern explorations in the East, the pictographic era dates back to the building of Babel and Nineveh." Again, under the head "*Things that carry the mind to eras as remote as those of Nimrod or Job,*" he remarks: "The style of many of the Western fortifications is unique. It appears to be too rude and irregular to be deemed derivative from any people who had reached attainments in the art of field-works." Evidently, Mr. Schoolcraft does not consider this a "New World."

"Physical Type of the Indian Race." Under this title it is remarked that the Indian is not capable of enduring as severe or long-continued labors as the European, as in rowing a boat, or carrying a heavy load, but in feats of agility or activity he excels. Tallness of stature is a feature of his physical condition, particularly in the Northern Lake tribes, where the average would seem to be six feet. The lamented Morton has fixed the average facial angle of the Indian at 75° , which is five degrees below that of the European race. To such minuteness have inquiries been instituted, that the Indian pile or hair of the head has been subjected to microscopical examination. It is found to be cylindrical, while in the Anglo-Saxon it is oval, and in the African race eccentrically elliptical. By an intermixture of the three races modifications of these forms ensue. Mr. Browne, who conducted the examination, believes that these modifications are so completely capable of appreciation, under the influence of the magnifier, as to denote with certainty the per centage of blood of the individual under examination, and he has proposed a classification and invented a system of terms to denote this per centage, ranging from one-fourth to one-sixteenth. The epidermis of the Red Man of America is pronounced by Dr. Morton to be "cinnamon-colored," which is considered determinate respecting the tribes of the Northern and Middle latitudes. In the Islands in the Caribbean Sea, in Guiana, Brazil, and California, a darker tint is visible, while in the Northwest the Menomonies of Wisconsin may be said to be of the lightest cinnamon type. Blue eyes and light hair only appear in the intermixed races, and where the aboriginal blood is as four-twelfths to the Anglo-Saxon parentage.

The languages of the American Indians exhibit peculiarities as marked as their race. They are founded and built up of distinct roots having a meaning by themselves. Distinct from the changes which all verbs undergo for time, person, and object, this principle reduces all words into monosyllabic or primordial increments, and as the process of accretion proceeds, throws them into formative elements of a dual or trisyllabic character. Thus, when the Indian wishes to express a term for wine, he uses a word compounded as follows:—

Sho—A grape.

Min—A berry.

Aubo—A liquor.

Shominaubo—Wine or grape berry liquor.

Sometimes, for the sake of euphony, a vowel is interposed, where two short words meet, which would bring two consonants together, and a consonant where two vowels would be in juxtaposition—thus:

Mish—Apple.

i—A connective vowel.

Min—A berry.

Aubo—Liquor.

Mishiminaubo—Cider, or apple berry liquor.

If anything can denote that the national taste is not Hebraic, it would seem to be their great diversity in the principle of naming children. An invariable element in the Hebrew law was the great deity, or the parent of the child, as in *El-kanah*, *Mo-ab*. The Indian, however, takes the open firmament of heaven as the field from whence he derives his names, and relies almost entirely on meteorological phenomena. The terms for sky, cloud, sun, star, mist, wind, sound, thunder, lightning, form the stock words for roots. Some of these compounds are exquisitely poetical—thus:

Ba bwa me au she—Low pealing thunder.

Ke wag no quod—The driving cloud.

Esh ta nak wod—Cloudless sky.

Mo kau ge zhig—The sun bursting from a cloud.

Ma zin—The spot on the sky.

It is characteristic of the names of females, that they denote the gender in their terminal syllable, *qua*—thus:

As sin au mik o qua—Woman of the pebbly bottom water.

Ke neance e qua—Little rose-bud woman.

O buh bau mwa wa ge zhig o qua—Woman of the murmuring of the skies.

Combinations assume a power of expression which is calculated to give permanency to Indian names, when they are applied to the geographical features of the country. Thus:

Illinois, from *illine*, man, and *ois*, a French termination.

Chicago, from *Cheegaugong*, a place of leeks, from the resemblance in the odor of the plant to a polecat; from *Chegag*, polecat, and *ong*, a place.

Wabash, from *waub*, the radix of white, and *oshee*, clouds borne by the equinoctial wind, and *ong*, locality.

Chesapeake, from *che*, great, and *sebeeg*, waters.

Manhattan, from *monau*, bad, and *atun*, channel or stream, alluding to the Hellgate passage between Long Island and New-York.

Michigan, from *michau*, great, in relation to land and water, and *sauwiegan*, a lake.

Wheeling, from *weel*, a human head, and *ing*, a place.

Mississippi, from the duplication of *miss*, great, meaning great-great, and *sebe* or *sipi* (agreeably to French orthography), a river.

The word *Ontario* is an example of the perfect concrete or union of fragmentary particles, charged with the meaning of whole words. It is from the dialect of the Wyandots. This race, prior to the war waged against them by the Iroquois, lived on the bay near the present city of Kingston. It was the commencement of a portage path into Lake Ontario, by which a circuitous navigation was saved, and the first view on reaching the summit that overlooked the lake, was one of the most picturesque and noble character. The word thus expresses this view: *On*, a hill or mountain; *tar*, rocks upstanding in water; *io*, beautiful water landscape. Thus, Ontario, beautiful prospect of hills, rocks, water.

For a correct knowledge of the history of the Indian race, it is indispensably necessary that we should be acquainted with the state of the arts at the time of the discovery and settlement of the country. There has always been manifested a disposition from the beginning to overrate it. Wonder, by an easy and natural transition, became admiration. The great pyramid temple of Cholulo, and the immense square blocks of basalt which formed the temple of the Senat Cuzco, could only be compared with the pyramids of the Nile and the Euphrates. But how great the difference! The degree of art exhibited in the ruins of Palenque can only be compared, not assimilated, with that which distinguishes the builders of the Ghizeh pyramids. There is more in them characteristic of rude, stern nature, indicating a prior degree of civilization to that which we find in the Old World, though not necessarily indicating them to have existed prior in point of time. Mr. Schoolcraft "is called to doubt whether the rude earth-works and mounds of the Mississippi valley could have been executed by the aboriginal race who formerly dwelt in this valley."

It is by the works of art which a race leaves behind it that we judge of its type of civilization. It is in these as much as in written books that a nation exhibits the degree of cultivation to which it has attained. And as races differ, so do their monuments. Thus we have the ancient Egyptian, the ancient Hindoo, the Assyrian, the Grecian, Roman, Celtic, all totally distinct from each other, yet some of them exhibiting a magnificence of conception which the present age looks upon with awe. In America, the highest type as yet discovered at Palenque, Cholulo and Cuzco, is still different from them all, bearing only such general resemblances to the Asiatic models, as might be ex-

pected from their ethnic forms of worship. But it is evident, that the high degree of cultivation exhibited in the remains of the former occupants of Central America, never extended as far north as the present area of the United States; but that, on the contrary, it has been always filled with predatory hunter tribes, whose remains, where they show them to have most advanced in the social scale, prove them to have been unable to consolidate their institutions. In other words, no race has left upon our soil any memorials even approaching the Toltecan or Aztec types, which are themselves of recent date, and inferior in degree to those exhibited in Yucatan, Peru, and Mexico. There are some evidences, however, which would lead us to infer a similarity of origin, at a period near that of the consolidation of the Aztec power, between the hunter tribes of the Mississippi valley and the tribes of ancient Central America, such as a similar mode in the general expression of ideas, by pictographic writing, traces of the worship of the sun and the moon, a national trait in erecting the residences of their priests and leaders upon terraces, and a general unity in manners and customs. Thus also, the zea maize propagated itself northwardly and eastwardly. The cotton plant appears not to have been known north of the Gila, showing that the semi-civilization found in Mexico at the discovery of America could never have extended farther north than lat. 36 degrees. As the south-eastern portion of Asia seems to have formed one centre of civilization, so is it possible that Central America may have formed another, less extensive, however, in its influence. The steady determination which archæologists have exhibited, until very recently, to derive the origin of our hunter tribes from the Old World, has contributed greatly to confuse the popular impression upon the subject. Hence we have claims of the existence of a Grecian and Roman civilization, founded upon evidence existing altogether in the imagination of its authors. Assertions that there is a Celtic element in certain Indian languages, are totally without foundation, in fact, being based upon mere fancied resemblances in sound. The Northern Society of Antiquarians have published a large volume, to prove that America was known to the Scandinavians; but there is no evidence to show that they ever visited any portion of this continent farther south than Greenland. The celebrated Dighton Rock, which was claimed as a monument of the visits of these old Norse vikings, is clearly established by Mr. Schoolcraft to be a specimen of Indian symbolic writing, bearing not a single trace of the Runic character. The "old Stone Mill," there is evident reason to believe, has been erected long since the discovery of America, though the singularity of this structure forbids us to say by whom, or for what purpose. At the same time, it is not impossible that this

continent may have been visited by Europeans, yet it is equally evident that such visits must have been made by small parties, who sojourned here for a short time, being unable to maintain themselves against the ferocity of the Indian race.

A general investigation of the facts in relation to the mounds and forts scattered throughout the valley of the Mississippi, would lead us to assign them to a race no higher in the scale of cultivation than we know the ancestors of the present Indians to have been. From observations made upon the cortical annular layers of large trees which have grown upon the ruins of these structures, there are indications that, up to the time of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, this region was inhabited by a half-hunter, half-industrial race, who, sustained by a prolific soil, had, in the course of centuries, accumulated these structures, partly for purposes of defence, and partly by their peculiar mode of sepulture; and that at that time violent dissensions arose among them, whole tribes were annihilated, and the modern Indian is the relic of this period of storm and violence—a degraded specimen of an inferior race.

We do not believe we can misunderstand the impression which a vast experience of the Indian character seems to have produced upon Mr. Schoolcraft's mind. Pity for the red man gleams forth in every line of this report. Something must be done, he believes, and that immediately; but we cannot perceive he suggests anything beyond their concentration in some portion of national domain at present unoccupied by the white race. Of their being capable of civilization he has evidently despaired. In his "Plan of Indian Colonization West," he reiterates the statement made by Mr. Monroe in 1825. In a message to Congress, the latter says, "Experience has clearly demonstrated that, in their present state, it is impossible to incorporate them in such masses (i. e., masses with independent governments within the States), in any form whatever, into our system. It has also demonstrated, with equal certainty, that without a timely anticipation of, and provision against, the dangers to which they are exposed, under causes which it will be difficult if not impossible to control, their degradation and extinction will be inevitable."

"Here," says Mr. Schoolcraft, "is the whole Indian question, after an experiment of 220 years, (dating the practical colonization of Virginia in 1606) divested of the exciting circumstances by which it was *then*, and has been at several subsequent periods surrounded!"

He therefore has only one hope, that some plan may be adopted whereby the tribes now existing may be coerced by the strong arm of our government into the adoption of a pastoral life, and the abandonment of their predatory habits, and their

SLAVE LABOR UPON PUBLIC WORKS.

final settlement in some territory, guaranteed to them exclusively, forever, and under the government of their own chiefs. Yet we cannot perceive that this will be of any permanent benefit to the Indian. The earth belongs to the race that will till it; and the great law of nature, that by the sweat of his brow alone can man maintain his existence, will inevitably extinguish the hunter tribes who once occupied but neglected this garden spot of the earth. It is otherwise with the negro than with the Indian. The former, in the state of slavery for which he is created, under the favoring care of a superior race, cannot be civilized or made a white man by any length of culture, but his condition can be ameliorated, and he indirectly enjoy the benefits of civilization. But the stern, proud Indian cannot be enslaved. The type of the savage beasts among whom he lives, like them he will disappear before the new tide of human life now rolling from the East, and with the buffalo, will have vanished the red man of America.

Art. VIII.—SLAVE LABOR UPON PUBLIC WORKS AT THE SOUTH.

THE CHEAPNESS OF SLAVE LABOR BELONGING TO COMPANIES IN CONSTRUCTING IMPROVEMENTS, COMPARED TO THE SYSTEM OF CONTRACTS.

THE Commonwealth of Virginia having at this time many improvements in progress of construction, it becomes a question of serious importance, as to the cheapest mode of making these improvements. The system of making contracts with individuals is universally adopted in the free, and generally in the slave States. There can be no question but it is the better plan in the Northern States, and can be done cheaper than if companies were to hire labor; but in slave States, where the labor can be owned by the companies, we are decidedly of the opinion, that the grading, masonry, and mechanical work on railroads, and the entire construction of canals, will be less than half the cost it would be under the system of contracts. To sustain this view of the subject, is the object of our essay, for we are deeply interested not only as a large tax payer, but as a stockholder in two of the most important improvements in the State—the James River and Kanawha Company, and the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad Company.

As a lover of our native State, we should delight to see not only those two important improvements completed, but also the other great lines commenced, and some that are contemplated carried on to consummation. Then, we should expect to see all our geographical divisions healed, and our good old Common-

wealth take the position in the confederacy to which she is entitled by the extent of her territory, the productiveness of her soil, and her mineral resources. But this cannot be done if the expensive system of contracts be continued; for the State's Treasury is inadequate to sustain these accumulated burdens, and consequently many sections must be deprived of the advantages of improvements, unless some plan be adopted to cheapen their cost. The plan proposed, we are convinced, will have this effect, and ought to be embraced by all the improvement companies in the slaveholding States.

To sustain the position assumed, it is necessary to compare the cost of labor to a company owning the slaves, and a contractor who hires them, for it is generally known that but a small portion of the laborers can possibly belong to the contractors—that they principally rely upon hirelings—and that they have found slaves the most profitable laborers. As proof of this fact, more than three-fourths of the laborers on the James River and Kanawha Canal the last year were slaves.

The average hire the present year of negro men to work on public improvements is about \$120. If a railroad or canal company were to purchase at the present price, say \$600, the annual cost to the company compared with the hirelings, will be nearly as follows:

Interest on \$600.....	\$36
Insurance of life.....	10
Total.....	\$46

less than half, for a hand to be employed in grading or excavating earth, besides the profit to the contractor; but upon mechanical work, a still greater difference exists. Take masonry, for example, and upon all these improvements a vast amount of masonry has to be done. A sprightly negro man will, in six months, make a tolerable mason, and in twelve months an excellent one, for it is a simple trade, easily learned. Yet masons are scarce, and demand a high price, and a contractor offering for work bases his calculations upon paying these high prices. The cost to a company owning slaves who are masons, and to contractors who hire them, will approximate to the following calculation:

Interest on \$600.....	\$36
Insurance on life.....	10
Clothing, &c.,.....	10
200 lbs. bacon per year.....	15
3 barrels corn do.....	7 50
Vegetables,.....	2 50
	\$81 00

Eighty-one dollars per annum, allowing 250 working days,

are equal to 32½ cents per day; whereas the hired mason will cost the contractor \$2 50 per day, more than seven times as much as the mason costs the company who owns him. In this estimate there is no allowance made for tools and overseeing, as both use the former; and the hired mason, though white, requires as much overseeing as the slave. Other mechanical work will show a considerable difference, but perhaps not as much as masonry.

Again, let us make an estimate of what excavation of earth and masonry will cost a company if owning slaves, and the price that is usually paid to contractors. We will base this estimate also upon the cost of negro men at \$600:

Interest per annum.....	\$36 00
Insurance.....	10 00
Clothing.....	10 00
Feeding.....	25 00
Overseering.....	15 00
Tools, including blacksmith's work.....	10 00

Entire cost of a man in one year.....\$106 00

In excavating earth, &c., ten cubic yards are considered an average day's work for a man—allowing 250 working days to a year, a man will excavate 2,500 yards; then divide \$106 by 2,500, and excavation will cost the company about four cents per cubic yard. The usual price for excavation of earth paid to contractors is about twelve cents per cubic yard, for eight cents is the lowest price we have ever known to be paid to a contractor, and frequently fifteen cents. The calculation of excavating rock is attended with more difficulty; but still we can approximate sufficiently near to show that the difference of cost, if performed by labor belonging to a company and by contractors, will be greater than in the excavation of earth; for instance, by the calculation we have made, the entire cost to a company owning slaves, for a man, is \$106 per annum, allowing 250 working days to the year, and the cost per day is 42 cents; and as the excavation of three cubic yards of rock is considered a fair average day's work per man, by dividing the 42 by 3, we have the cost per cubic yard fourteen cents, whereas the usual contract price is sixty cents. As a proof that this calculation is nearly correct, the writer made in the year 1839, when employed on the James River and Kanawha Company's canal, about \$600 to each hand employed in excavating rock; and a friend told him that last year his hands, similarly employed, made from \$600 to \$700 each.

From the above calculations, we have these results, that slaves belonging to a company can excavate earth for less than half—can excavate rock for about one-fourth—and can construct culverts, bridges, abutments, locks, dams, &c. at about one-seventh

that the same kind of work will cost contractors. With these facts, ought companies to hesitate as to the mode of constructing their improvements? and ought not the Legislature to require the State proxies to vote for the adoption of the system, here proved to be so decidedly superior to one almost in universal use, particularly as the State has so large an interest in all the improvements?

Let us test the two systems in the tobacco crop. Suppose a planter were to cultivate tobacco by contract; advertise that proposals would be received to repair — miles of fence; plough, re-plough, and manure — acres of land; burn and prepare — yards of plant land; put up — thousand tobacco hills, and plant, work, worm, and sucker this tobacco; cut, hang, house, fire, strip, bulk and prize the crop—at what price could he afford to sell this tobacco? We will answer at not less than twenty dollars per hundred; yet, by owning the slaves, he can realize a small profit at five dollars. It may, however, be answered that greater skill is required to make canals or railroads, than is necessary in the cultivation of tobacco; but we beg leave to rejoin and say, that having had much experience in making tobacco and canals, we believe that more sound judgment is necessary in the former, than is required in the latter operation.

We have frequently heard the objection urged against companies making their improvements with slaves belonging to them—that contractors feel a greater interest, and with fewer hands to superintend, will have more work done by their laborers than companies can have performed by their slaves. It is admitted that this might be the case to some inconsiderable extent; but with a good system, and with a man of good common sense to manage the affairs of a company, we feel satisfied that this difference would be inconsiderable. For proof that this opinion is well formed, we refer to a contractor now at work, both on the canal and railroad, (Mr. Chas. Scott,) who has from three to five hundred men employed, (principally slaves,) and yet, from the best information that could be obtained, he makes a larger profit in proportion to numbers than the contractors who work, comparatively speaking, but few hands—he has to rely upon a good system and upon overseers, and so would the president of a company. It is readily admitted that, with inefficient officers—with a president, whose only qualification is the ability to write long reports, with beautiful figures of speech and handsomely rounded periods; and who believes it is his only duty to preside at the meeting of the directors—or one whose time is almost entirely occupied with his own concerns—or one who knows nothing of the management of works of this character, nor of the governing and controlling of men, that such presidents might progress with more ease to themselves, and other officers; but with a

good system and good officers, we contend that it is not much more difficult to manage one thousand than ten men.

We would recommend the following system for the government of a large number of slaves upon a work of internal improvement. The slaves, we think, ought to be divided into companies of about thirty men, including boys for the driving carts,, if this be required—each company should have an overseer, a cook, and a blacksmith, with all necessary carts, horses and tools—the companies should be located as nearly to each other as the work, with accompanying circumstances, would justify—for about every ten companies an assistant engineer would be necessary, and for about one thousand men, a commissary, to purchase provisions, carts, horses, tools, &c. It should be the duty of the assistant engineer, aided by two sprightly slaves, (for rodmen) to designate particularly by metes and bounds the work to be executed by the overseers—pass along the work intrusted to his supervision as often as possible, noting in a book, or check roll kept for the purpose, the number of hands at work on each section, and at the end of the month make an accurate estimate of the quantity of work done by each overseer.

It should be the duty of every overseer to keep an account of all tools, provisions, &c., received from the commissary, and a check roll of the number of hands at work each day, with the causes of the absence of any hand.

At the end of the month, the quantity of work done by each overseer would indicate to the president his value, and notwithstanding there is great difference in the quality of earth and rock, yet a man of good common sense would soon form a pretty correct judgment of what could be excavated and removed, and also of the value of the overseer, and should any of the overseers prove unworthy, dismiss them and employ others. With such a system as this, well carried into effect, there is no doubt that the work would not only be well executed, but as much done to the hand as is usually obtained by contractors.

Suppose the James River and Kanawha Company had adopted this system at the commencement of their work, what a different aspect would the pecuniary concerns of that company have presented to what they now do! Instead of the stock being nearly worthless, it would have been the most valuable in the United States. Instead of the State being burdened with a heavy debt, contracted principally for this improvement, without a prospect of remuneration, her treasury would now be receiving large dividends from her investment; for we contend, that the amount it cost to construct the canal to Lynchburg would have completed it to the Ohio, and that the greater part, if not the whole amount of the money expended, might have been returned to the State and to the stockholders.

We are aware that this statement has a visionary appearance, but all we ask is to examine our facts and figures, and see if they do not prove to the satisfaction of any unprejudiced mind, that such is the case.

The canal from Richmond to Lynchburg cost nearly \$6,000,000; with that sum it is contended that the canal could have been constructed to the Ohio, (whether a sufficient feeder could have been obtained on the Alleghany, we shall not now attempt to discuss,) and much the larger portion, if not the whole of that amount, returned to the State and stockholders.

When the canal was commenced, negro men were worth about \$400, but we are willing to make our calculations upon their present selling price, \$600. At the commencement of the work we would have bought one thousand negro men, which would have cost \$600,000; and used the first year, \$400,000 to purchase the necessary carts, horses, and tools, to pay land damages, engineers' salaries, and all other necessary expenditures, which would have been an ample allowance; and the remaining \$5,000,000, at interest, would yield \$300,000 annually, which would be sufficient for each succeeding year's expenditure, and to purchase as many slaves as would be probably necessary to keep up their number. When the canal was completed to Lynchburg, the income derived from tolls would be increased from \$150,000 to \$200,000. This sum, after defraying the necessary expenses of the unfinished canal, might have been made a sinking fund, and as the canal progressed, this sinking fund would be increased, until the completion of this great work; when it would, together with the slaves, have been sufficient to pay back the \$1,000,000, together with the greater part of the interest annually drawn to carry on the work.

With this system difficulties would be overcome, which, under that of contracts, would be impracticable for the want of funds; for after the net amount of tolls received exceeded the annual expenditure, it would be merely a question of time, and not of cost; for if the net amount of tolls, when the canal reached the Alleghany, exceeded \$300,000, (the annual estimated expenditure,) which it certainly would have done, and if the three were required to make the necessary tunnels, (the annual expenditure being less than the annual income from tolls,) the company, when the tunnels were finished, would be richer than when these tunnels were commenced, and the same state of things would continue until its consummation.

But is it too late for that company now to adopt this system? I think not; for no doubt the State could be induced to advance the necessary funds to purchase one thousand men, and by husbanding its resources, these slaves might be supported and pay all the necessary expenditures.

The same system might be applied to railroads, with the exception of the cost of the rails. Take, for example, the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad, the grading of which, we are satisfied, might be done for less than half it will cost under the system of contracts. If negro men were purchased as fast as the funds of the company would justify the expenditure, and the first two hundred of the negroes so purchased (except such as might be required for other particular services) put into companies with a skilful and prudent mason to superintend and instruct them, in one year they would be good masons, and whilst learning the trade, effect a large saving over the system of contracts; and at the expiration of that time, their value would be doubled to the company. The same system might be pursued as to carpenters and blacksmiths; and when the company had sufficient funds for the purpose, negroes might be purchased to do part of the excavation of rock and earth, until the road was completed, when a large number will be always required to keep it in repair, to work at the depots in loading and unloading the cars, and in cutting wood and locating it where it may be wanted for the use of the steam-engines.

We have selected the James River and Kanawha Company, and the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad Company, to apply the reasons which induce us to prefer the system above advocated, because we are a stockholder, and have, in addition, a direct personal interest in each of these companies.

In conclusion, we will say, that we ardently desire to see such improvements constructed, as will fully develop the agricultural and mineral resources of this, our native State; but, at the same time, we do not wish such an accumulated debt as must necessarily cause excessive taxation, or the disgraceful alternative, repudiation.

The system proposed will, it is thought, obviate to some extent the danger of these evils, and as such, it is recommended to the attention of the various improvement companies and to our fellow-citizens.

Art. IX.—THE MARITIME PROSPERITY OF CHARLESTON.

[We draw upon the *Charleston Standard* for the material of the present most interesting article.]

IN order to ascertain, as nearly as possible, the exact condition of the maritime interests of this port, we have procured the following list of vessels, owned at the present time in this city, registering one hundred and fifty tons and over. The list, of course,

could have been greatly, very greatly, augmented by placing upon it the large number of small vessels, of less tonnage, belonging to the place, but that was unnecessary. The schedule, as it stands, is sufficient. It shows that our maritime property has increased at the ratio of forty per cent. within the last two years. This highly gratifying result has been produced almost entirely by the newly awakened spirit of enterprise that is rapidly diffusing itself throughout the City and State. Our people in all sections are fairly aroused; they are at work with a determination to place their State upon a footing, so far as internal prosperity is concerned, with the first of the nation. Nature has lavished upon them all the requisites for commercial, agricultural, and manufacturing greatness; they have opened their eyes to this fact, and are alive to the importance of turning all these blessings to account. They see the necessity of opening better channels of communication to the seaboard, for the more speedy transmission of their products to market. They know that Charleston, in reality, is the most central point, and can be made more easy of access than any other place on the sea-coast. Here, in time, must come, for shipping abroad, a large portion of the products of the great West and South-west. This must eventually become the main depot for the imports and exports of many of the States in the interior—the very heart of the country—including North Carolina, the greater portion of Georgia, the southern part of Kentucky and Ohio, Tennessee, Arkansas, Missouri, Illinois, Indiana, and the States and Territories still farther west. So soon as our railroad projects are completed, a large amount of the commerce and travel of this vast range of country will be poured into the lap of Charleston. It is "manifest destiny."

The mercantile marine is co-existent with internal prosperity. Our maritime commerce was at its height from 1820 to 1824; but in the latter year, from circumstances which may be directly traced to internal causes, it commenced falling off, and gradually dwindled away until it was reduced to a mere cypher. Within the last few years, however, we are happy to say, it has evinced signs of returning to the glorious path of enterprise. It has risen, and is now rising with a degree of strength and rapidity that bids fair to eclipse the expectations of its most sanguine friends. The main pillars, upon which are based our future wealth and greatness, are our commercial marine and our railroads. They are, to a considerable extent, dependent on each other. At this moment the business success of our merchant vessels is of more importance than any other branch of trade—it is, in fact, the first stepping-stone to prosperity. The bar in our harbor may be removed without a material increase in our shipping interest; but an increase in our shipping interest will

not only remove the bar, but will apply the stimulant of individual exertion to the work, in which case it must succeed. We shall refer to these important matters again. In the mean time, we would refer with infinite satisfaction to the following:—

List of Vessels of One Hundred and Fifty Tons burden and upwards, owned in Charleston, S. C.

Name of Vessel.	Class or Denomination.	Tonnage.	Name of Vessel.	Class or Denomination.	Tonnage.
Muscongus.....	Ship.....	669.13	Cherokee.....	Bark.....	232.91
Alliance.....	".....	524.69	Acadia.....	".....	199.67
Wateree.....	".....	680.74	Delaware.....	".....	198.19
South Carolina.....	".....	1,301.03	Julia Dean.....	".....	298.40
Delia Maria.....	".....	583.87	Convoy.....	".....	249.40
Harkaway.....	".....	545.05	Jedo.....	".....	242.30
Catherine.....	".....	477.69	Delta.....	Brig.....	198.31
Gen. Parkhill.....	".....	554.22	Orchilla.....	".....	180.43
John Ravenel.....	".....	700.14	Factor.....	".....	154.56
George A. Hopley.....	".....	249.45	Clarendon.....	".....	182.70
Luminary.....	".....	432.00	Enterprise.....	".....	196.62
Tremont.....	".....	368.14	Louis Walsh.....	".....	152.39
Camillus.....	".....	716.48	Yankee Blade.....	".....	220.84
Franchise.....	".....	699.80	Emma Eger.....	".....	196.73
Susan G. Owens.....	".....	730.11	Saint Andrew.....	".....	157.52
Caroline.....	".....	722.18	Commerce.....	Ketch.....	174.06
Noemie.....	".....	547.39	Broadfield.....	Schooner.....	165.58
Gondar.....	".....	642.33	St. Lawrence.....	".....	153.25
Isabel.....	Steamship.....	1,115.85	Fanny.....	".....	363.23
James Adger.....	".....	1,151.28	Charleston.....	Steamboat.....	235.30
Nashville.....	".....	1,220.30	Massasoit.....	".....	178.35
St. Lawrence.....	Bark.....	223.40	Marion.....	".....	258.71
Virginia Ann.....	".....	295.39	Gen. Clinch.....	".....	256.16
Como.....	".....	224.69	Wm. Seabrook.....	".....	284.43
Dudley.....	".....	249.68	Florida.....	".....	344.85
Harmony.....	".....	308.64	Nina.....	".....	338.00
Sumter.....	".....	380.70	De Kalb.....	".....	154.52
Isabella.....	".....	355.75	Wm. B. Meares.....	".....	199.69
Susan.....	".....	281.72	Carolina.....	".....	447.32
General Greene.....	".....	242.53	Darlington.....	".....	298.08
Edisto.....	".....	365.84	Jasper.....	".....	247.31
Etiwan.....	".....	325.71	Gov. Dubley.....	".....	408.30

Total tonnage, 25,785 53-95, exclusive of a large number of schooners and sloops, being an increase of 40 per cent. in the last two years.

Art. X.—AMERICAN COMMERCIAL CITIES—BALTIMORE, 1853.

No. IV.

THE following statistics are made up from the *Baltimore Prices Current*, and are for the year ending 30th December, 1853. Those for previous years are condensed in our INDUSTRIAL RESOURCES.

COFFEE.—The importations of this important article of our trade have fallen off somewhat the past year, as will be seen by our table below.

This, however, is to be attributed to the difficulty that has existed of executing orders at Rio, on account of the advanced prices there. Of Lagnayra, there is likewise a decrease in the importations. The stock on hand in this market January 1st, 1853, was 32,500 bags; the importations of all kinds during the year amount to 208,702 bags, being 44,990 bags less than in the year 1852, and about 100,000 bags less than 1851. Stock on hand January 1st, 1854, 40,000 bags—a small portion only being in first hands, and the residue divided pretty generally among the trade.

In referring to the files of this paper for the past year, we find that the market for Rio opened very quiet in January, but grew more active towards the close of that month, the ruling prices being for run of cargo 9 a 9½ cts. February opened brisk, and prices slightly improved, reaching for prime parcels 10 cents; these quotations continued to rule with but little variation until the beginning of summer; in the meanwhile, however, large purchases were made on speculation—based upon statements contemplating a short crop in Brazil—at an average of 9¼ cents for run of cargoes. Subsequently the market again became dull and inactive, principally on account of the large stock in importers' hands, which in the month of July amounted to 87,000 bags; prices were nevertheless well sustained at 9½ a 10 cents until the close of the month of August, when a more active demand prevailed, and the article began to improve, the stock sensibly decreasing under large sales and light importations. This feeling continued during the month of September, the quotations being 11½ a 12 cents. Subsequently, the market declined again to 10¾ a 11½ cents, and continued to rule at those figures until the middle of November, when it was considerably relieved by large shipments south, leaving a reduced stock. Favorable advices were also received from Brazil confirming previous intelligence of a short crop and enhanced prices, and a corresponding improvement was realized here; since when, prices have continued to advance, the market closing firmly at 13 for prime, 12½ cents for good, and 12 cents for ordinary Rio. The average price during the year has been 10 cents; during last year, under larger importations, it was 9¼ cents per pound.

IMPORTS OF COFFEE AT THIS PORT FOR FOUR YEARS.

	1853.	1852.	1851.	1850.
From Rio Janeiro.....	182,338....	224,082....	266,240....	150,194
From Lagnayra.....	} 12,241....	16,241....	21,081....	24,040
From Porto Cabello.....				
From Maracaibo.....	554....	5,873....	2,754
From West Indies.....	3,367....	8,535....	8,114....	6,532
From Coastwise.....	10,756....	4,280....	3,885....	3,934
Total.....	208,702	253,692	305,103	187,454

COAL.

Receipts of Coal at Baltimore for the past nine years, to the 31st of December.

	Cumberland.	Anthracite.
1845.....	16,000 tons.....	90,000 tons.
1846.....	18,393 ".....	100,000 "
1847.....	50,259 ".....	110,000 "
1848.....	60,289 ".....	125,000 "
1849.....	71,699 ".....	140,000 "
1850.....	146,645 ".....	160,000 "
1851.....	163,855 ".....	200,000 "
1852.....	256,000 ".....	125,000 "
1853.....	406,000 ".....	183,000 "

FLOUR.—The total inspections of both Howard street and City Mills flour for the last year show a slight falling off compared with those of 1852. Among the principal causes assigned for this decrease is the short crop of wheat raised in some sections of Western Virginia, from which a large proportion of our supplies of flour are obtained, and the unusually low stage of water in all the streams, from which the millers have suffered very materially. It will be seen, at the same time, that the receipts of wheat are about the same as those of last year, which is accounted for by the fact last mentioned, and it is supposed that but for the long-continued scarcity of water, the inspections in Baltimore would have amounted to some three hundred thousand barrels more than the quantity given below.

We present as follows a brief review of the course of our market for the last twelve months. Few years have been attended with more remarkable fluctuations in this exceedingly sensitive article than the one just closed, nor do we think it has often been the case that so active an interest has been felt in its rise or fall by those not immediately interested in the trade. The rupture between two great European powers has been watched in all its phases as affecting breadstuffs, and as the prospect of peace becomes less and less apparent, the whole continent being now the same as involved in the "last resort of kings," it deeply concerns the people of this country to know the probable extent of a future foreign demand, so long as we maintain friendly relations with all the world.

Howard street.—The market opened active in January, under favorable European advices, with large sales at \$5 18¼ a 5 25, and continued to rule at those figures for the remainder of the month. February opened with an improvement, the sales being at \$5 25 a 5 37½, but the market declined again in a few days to \$5 12½, and on the 18th to \$4 81¼ a 4 87½. During the rest of the month it was unsteady, running up to \$5 25, and closing at \$5 00. March opened dull at \$5 00, and on the 11th March market declined to \$4 75, at which it ruled quite steady for some days, and then further declined to \$4 62½, at which the month closed. April commenced dull at same figures, but the prices improved on the 8th, the sales being at \$4 81¼, and on the 15th to \$5 00, but declined again to \$4 75 on the 21st, and for the balance of the month fluctuated between \$4 75 a 4 87½. May opened at \$4 87½, but market declined on the 20th to \$4 68¾, and closed at \$4 56¼. In June prices ranged from \$4 50 a 4 75, principally at \$4 56¼ a 4 62½. In July the market opened at \$4 62½, and continued to improve, reaching \$5 25 on the 22d—the advance being mainly attributed to the small stock on hand and the active demand which then existed, but towards the close of the month the foreign news created a decline, sales being made at \$5 00 a 5 12½. In August the market was brisk under favorable European advices, and prices further advanced to \$5 25 a 5 37½ but declining again to \$5 12½ a 5 25 at the close. September opened active under continued favorable news from Europe, and prices advanced to \$5 50 on the 2d, and to \$6 12½ on the 15th; prices again receded on the 23d to \$5 87½, and closed on the 30th at \$6 25. October opened at \$6 25, market advanced to \$6 75 the first week, and on the 14th touched \$7 00, declining again on the 21st to \$6 25, at which it continued steady through the following week, closing, however, at \$6 37½. November opened at \$6 37½, and under further foreign news, the market again advanced to \$7 00 on the 4th, declining again on the 18th to \$6 37½, and closing at \$6 75. In December this price prevailed for a time, but the market declined on the 17th to \$6 25, advancing again towards the close to \$7.

FLOUR INSPECTION FOR THE LAST FIVE YEARS.

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Howard Street.....	474,619	549,233	533,549	729,532	593,807
City Mills.....	245,753	295,236	324,158	486,096	439,590
Susquehanna.....	16,272	17,057	23,399	51,317	65,587
Ohio.....	—	—	—	6,291	56,210
Family.....	27,874	35,171	34,494	33,929	26,409
Total.....	764,518	896,697	915,600	1,307,165	1,181,603
Rye.....	8,011	5,480	7,578	6,450	5,394
Corn Meal.....	54,837	45,360	33,145	57,138	38,478

GRAIN.—It affords us much satisfaction to be enabled, after an almost incredible amount of labor, together with the generous assistance of one of the largest houses in the trade, to spread before our readers to-day another full and reliable exhibit of the receipts of this highly important article of the business of our port, which will be found under their appropriate heads below, as well as the disposition of the same during the past year. Whilst there appears, by this exhibit, to be a slight falling off in wheat, it is more than made up by the receipts of corn, which swell the aggregate even above that of 1852. The crop of wheat, as a general thing, in the sections from whence Baltimore draws her supplies, was large, and in quality superior to that of last year.

Wheat.—The year's business opened with very light receipts, which continued, notwithstanding a steady active demand, until the receipts of new crop, which was early in July. Sales of white parcels were made early in January, at \$1 18 a \$1 23, and \$1 14 a \$1 17 for red. In February and March supplies continued light, although at the close of the latter month a decline took place, and in the beginning of April the quotations were \$1 08 a \$1 12 for white, and \$1 a \$1 04 for red. From this time the market gradually improved, until it reached \$1 15 a \$1 17 for white, and \$1 12 a \$1 14 for red, but receded subsequently. In July, new crop sold at \$1 10 a \$1 15 for red, and \$1 15 a \$1 18 for white, under the influence of European advices. Much of the wheat which came to market within the ensuing month proved damp and sprouted, or otherwise unsuitable for shipment or immediate grinding. Since that time prices for good parcels have continued to improve as the market advanced abroad. The closing prices are the highest realized during the year, being for red \$1 55 a \$1 60, white \$1 63 a \$1 68. The receipts have been as follows:

WHEAT.

By the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad.....	bush.	185,000
“ “ Susquehanna Railroad.....	“	144,263
“ Philadelphia, Wilmington and Baltimore Railroad.....	“	5,000
“ Tide-Water Canal and wagons.....	“	322,370
“ Water-borne from Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina.....	“	2,755,332
Total.....		3,411,965

Which has been disposed of as follows:—

Shipped coastwise.....	1,091,000
“ to Europe.....	242,459
“ British North American Colonies.....	5,789
Ground by city millers.....	1,727,017
Stock held by millers.....	240,000
“ others, and on shipboard not cleared.....	112,000
Total.....	3,411,965

The stock held by millers, December 31st, 1852, was estimated at 320,000 bushels.

Corn.—January, receipts were fair; sales of white at 64 a 66 cents; yellow, 60 a 64 cents, ruling quite steady during the month. February, white 55 a 57 cents; yellow, 60 a 62 cents. March, prices had declined to 51 a 52 cents for white, and 55 a 56 for yellow. Subsequently the market improved, the variations being but slight until near the close of May, the quotations then being, for white 55 a 57 cents, and yellow 60 a 61 cents; still further advancing, reaching July 21 to 70 cents for white, and 69 cents for yellow. In August, prices were, for white 60 a 62 cents, and yellow 68 cents. In September, sales of white were at 70 a 71 cents, yellow 74 a 75 cents. In October, opened at 82 a 84 cents for white, 80 a 82 cents for yellow; and closed at 64 a 67 cents for white, and 68 to 70 cents for yellow. In November new crop began to arrive, and sold at 58 a 63 cents for white and yellow; and during the remainder of the year fluctuated considerably, closing quotations being 60 a 62 cents for white, and 64 a 66 cents for yellow. We give the receipts as follows:—

CORN.	
By the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad	250,000
“ “ Susquehanna Railroad	207,978
“ Philadelphia, Wilmington, and Baltimore Railroad	12,000
“ Tide-Water Canal and wagons	90,000
Water-borne	3,346,516
Total	3,906,494

Which has been disposed of as follows:—

Shipments coastwise	2,553,189
“ to Europe	138,322
“ to West Indies and British North American Colonies	89,983
“ to K. D., corn meal	150,000
Taken by distillers	575,000
City Consumption	400,000
Total	3,906,494

The following are the comparative receipts of grain for four years:

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Wheat	2,300,000	2,600,000	3,451,150	3,411,965
Corn	3,250,500	2,650,000	3,745,900	3,906,494
Oats	600,000	450,000	800,000	780,000
Rye	140,000	150,000	165,000	160,000
Peas	30,000	15,000	10,000	13,000
Beans	5,000	3,000	5,000	4,000

Total ... 6,325,000 ... 5,868,000 ... 8,177,050 ... 8,275,459

TOBACCO STATEMENT.

Showing the Quantity in the several Warehouses on the 1st of January, 1853, the Inspections by each House for the year ending December 31, Deliveries for the same period, and Stock on hand January 1, 1854.

State Tobacco Warehouses.	No. 1.	No. 2.	No. 3.	No. 4.	No. 5.	Total.
Stock January 1, 1853	2,142	1,869	1,882	3,124	2,943	11,960
Inspections of 1853	10,678	9,865	8,714	7,583	11,827	48,667
Total	12,820	11,734	10,596	10,707	14,770	60,627
Deliveries in 1853	11,404	10,564	9,077	8,351	11,452	50,848
Stock January, 1, 1854.	1,416	1,170	1,519	2,356	3,318	9,779

NOTE.—Add Tobacco on shipboard not cleared, 760 hhd., and the total stock on hand, January 1, 1854, will be 10,539 hhd.

The following Statement shows the Stock in Warehouses on the 1st of January, 1853, and the quantity of each kind inspected for the year ending December 31.

Stock in warehouses January 1, 1853	hhds.	11,960
Inspections from January 1, to December 31, 1853, viz. :—		
Maryland.....	29,248	
Ohio.....	17,947	
Kentucky.....	1,380	
Virginia.....	78	
Pennsylvania.....	14	
		48,667
To which add received from District of Columbia. and not inspected.....		600
		61,227

EXPORTED, 1853.

To Bremen	18,947	
To Amsterdam.....	9,980	
To Rotterdam.....	10,395	
To France	5,380	
To Trieste.....	1,619	
To England	2,773	
All other ports, including coastwise.....	1,594	
		50,688
Stock on hand January 1, 1854.....		10,539

Manufactured Tobacco.—The receipts of this article within the past year have been sufficient to meet a very large increased and increasing demand in our market, dealers who have been in the habit of going eastward for their purchases having found stocks here not only well assorted, but of a character to meet any demand. Prices within the past few months have not been remunerating to manufacturers, but the probability of their doing a materially curtailed business during the present year, the high prices of the raw material, and the firmness of the markets in Virginia, together with large European orders for that article, incline us to the belief that better prices may be obtained for the manufactured article before the closing out of the present stock on our market. We quote—

Fancy Tobacco.....	50c. a	\$2 00
Pound lumps, No. 1 brands.....	30 a	40
“ medium.....	20 a	28
“ common.....	10 a	18
Best Brands, 5's, 8's, and 10's lump	17 a	22
Medium.....	14 a	16
Common.....	10 a	13
16's, 18's, and 20's lump.....	8 a	10
Ladies' twist and best $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. rolls	21 a	25

WHISKY.—We are, as usual, at a loss to determine the exact amount of business done in this article during the year. From what information we have been enabled to glean from several very reliable sources, however, we are justified in stating that the receipts have amounted to but little short of 146,000 bbls., from Pennsylvania, New-York, and Ohio, and inclusive of the business done by the four city distilleries. The following is as close an estimate as we are enabled to make of the receipts at present, and although not wholly derived from direct data, may be relied upon as very nearly correct. Those set down as per railroads and the Tide-Water Canal are right as far as they go:—

90 AMERICAN COMMERCIAL CITIES—BALTIMORE, 1853.

Baltimore and Susquehanna Railroad	bbls.	29,904
Baltimore and Ohio Railroad		12,156
Susquehanna and Tide-Water Canal		12,698
Coastwise vessels		25,000
Wagons		6,000
Turned out by city distilleries		60,000

Total receipts 145,758

PRICES OF RAW WHISKY IN BARRELS AT BALTIMORE, ON THE 1st AND 15th OF EACH MONTH OF 1853.

	Cents.			Cents.	
January 1st.....	21½	a 23	15th.....	24½	a 25
February 1st.....	24	a 24½	15th.....	23½	a 24
March 1st.....	23½	a 24	15th.....	22½	a 23
April 1st.....	23½	a 25	15th.....	22½	a 23
May 1st.....	22½	a 23	15th.....	22½	a 23
June 1st.....	22½	a 23	15th.....	22½	a 23
July 1st.....	23	a 23½	15th.....	23½	a 24
August 1st.....	26½	a 27	15th.....	26	a 26½
September 1st.....	26	a 26½	15th.....	29½	a 30
October 1st.....	28½	a 29	15th.....	32	a 32½
November 1st.....	30	a 31	15th.....	27½	a 28
December 1st.....	27½	a 28	15th.....	27½	a 28

INSPECTIONS OF FISH AT BALTIMORE IN 1853.

				1853.	1852.	1851.
	No. 1.	No. 2.	No. 3.	Condem'd.	Total.	Total.
Mackerel.....bbls.	547	542	9,493	1,174	11,756	20,581
".....halves.	197	237	1,223	26	1,683	5,513
Herrings.....bbls.	26,758	465		8,492	35,715	28,348
".....halves.	1,841	15		66	1,922	1,608
Shad.....bbls.	5,877	276		55	6,208	4,702
".....halves.	905	22			927	726
Codfish.....bbls.	186			10	196	278
Salmon.....	77				78	57
Scalefish.....	10				10	22
Whitefish.....				18	18	

GUANO.—As generally anticipated, the importations of the favorite article under this head, Peruvian, have greatly increased during the past year, not only at this port, but at other ports of the United States, and we need hardly add that if the government agents had been enabled to supply our markets with four times the quantity imported, it would have been readily disposed of. The demand is in fact only limited by the supply; but arrangements having been made by which a far greater quantity may be received in this country than ever heretofore, there is no reason to believe that agriculturists will again be subjected to the inconveniences from which they have suffered so materially within the past year. So deficient has been the supply, notwithstanding the marked increase of the importations, that other descriptions of guano have been substituted to an unusual extent, and when obtained from speculators, the most exorbitant prices have frequently been paid for them. Recently discovered deposits of this excellent fertilizer have attracted the attention of some of our importers, and there has been quite a considerable quantity of Mexican received at Baltimore during the last three months, amounting in all to about 4,000 tons, including several cargoes from the Caribbean Sea.

There have been imported into the United States during the year 1853, in 107 vessels, 70,530 tons of Peruvian Guano; of which 50 vessels have arrived at Baltimore, and 57 vessels at other ports.

IMPORTS OF PERUVIAN GUANO AT BALTIMORE FOR THE LAST FIVE YEARS.

1849.....	2,700 tons.
1850.....	6,800 "
1851.....	25,000 "
1852.....	25,500 "
1853.....	32,152 "

IMPORTATIONS OF SUGAR AT THE PORT OF BALTIMORE FOR THE LAST FOURTEEN YEARS.

	From New-Orleans.		From West Indies.	
	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.
1840.....	7,433....	233....	8,007....	1,905
1841.....	4,184....	11....	8,750....	4,006
1842.....	6,103....	264....	10,828....	1,253
1843.....	7,642....	741....	7,483....	735
1844.....	5,172....	114....	10,885....	436
1845.....	12,602....	413....	5,161....	209
1846.....	9,845....	517....	6,541....	224
1847.....	6,013....	183....	18,240....	4,236
1848.....	10,279....	3,268....	14,841....	2,393
1849.....	9,851....	2,384....	12,570....	5,654
1850.....	11,066....	3,146....	11,454....	1,420
1851.....	7,174....	3,432....	16,732....	2,542
1852.....	13,153....	307....	12,619....	2,653
1853.....	10,476....	383....	2,006....	13,967

Art. XI.—THE GREAT SOUTHERN CONVENTION IN CHARLESTON.

No. II.

IN the last issue of the REVIEW, we published a detailed list of the members of this highly interesting body, together with the names of the officers elected and the resolutions which were finally adopted.

In order that our readers may be possessed of a complete record of the proceedings of the Convention, which will not only be of present interest and value, but will be most useful for future reference, we shall in this and the next number continue, and, if possible, conclude the subject. For our material it will be necessary to draw upon the ample reports of the city press, and chiefly upon those of the *Courier*, which have been furnished us for the purpose.

FIRST DAY.

Hon. W. C. Dawson was conducted to the Chair, amid general applause. He returned his thanks most forcibly and feelingly for this renewed mark of confidence, received from a large representation of the South. Under all the circumstances he felt constrained to accept the honor on condition that it was admitted and supposed he had first declined it in good faith and sincerity. The duties of such a post were far more arduous than would be supposed by a casual spectator, and he only felt assured by the conviction that the confidence which placed him there, would induce his fellow-delegates to support and sustain him under his assumed task. He then proceeded briefly, but most forcibly and pertinently, to review the topics that would naturally and properly engage the attention of the Convention, which were

chiefly those embodied in the resolutions adopted by the Memphis Convention. He laid special stress, however, on the improvements demanded by the state of the Mississippi river, both as to its mouth and its current, which he contended should receive the timely attention of this body, and of the Federal Councils, "so far up as the Constitution ran," and urged prominently the necessity of Hydrostatic gauges to note and record the changes affected by the current on the banks of that noble outlet.

He was frequently interrupted by vehement and continued applause.

On motion of Mr. Thomas P. Hutchins, of Maryland, the Vice-Presidents were requested to act as a committee to prepare and report a plan of voting for the Convention.

G. A. Trenholm, Esq., who in the consultation meeting had been appointed Chairman of the South Carolina delegation, offered the following resolutions:—

"That this Convention recommends in the most earnest manner, to the people of the South, and more especially to merchants in Southern seaports, to embark a suitable portion of their capital in the construction or purchase of ships, to convey directly to foreign ports our agricultural and other productions, and to bring home return cargoes of foreign commodities.

"That a commercial marine capable of this service would relieve the South from an enormous tribute now paid to other States of this Union and foreign countries, and turn the gains of this lucrative and invigorating pursuit into new elements of Southern opulence and strength."

Accompanying these resolutions was a report entering into details on the subject.

Mr. Trenholm also offered a resolution that "in the opinion of this Convention a material reduction or a repeal of the duties now imposed on railroad iron, would materially conduce to the interests of all the States, and that the Convention do earnestly recommend the matter to the immediate and favorable attention of Congress."

Mr. Trenholm also offered a resolution to the following effect:—That this Convention recommend to all the States here represented an exemption for one year upon importations of all foreign commodities directly imported into a Southern port.

These resolutions and documents were referred to the General Committee on Business, hereinafter named.

Mr. Morgan, of Virginia, submitted, as information, sundry reports and proceedings of the Central Southern Rights Association of Virginia, which were referred also to the General Committee.

Mr. Marshall, of Miss., submitted a resolution declaring—

That it is the deliberate sense of this Convention, that the object for which we are convened is the general development and maintenance of the rights and resources of the Southern and Southwestern States; and while we regard Commerce as the great colonizer, civilizer and christianizer of mankind, which, with its various carrying interests, demands our special consideration, we also recognize as our legitimate business, all other matters of a practical character, tending to the accomplishment of the general design; embracing Education, Agriculture, Home Manufactures, Navigation, and the occupation of our vast uncultivated regions.

In support of the above resolution, Mr. Marshall addressed the Convention in the following terms:—

Mr. President—I desire to submit this resolution for the action of this body, at this period, for the purpose of enabling us to define our position before the world. The Convention is called "Commercial," but we do not wish it understood that its sole object is to deal in matters that smell of the Custom-House or the Ledger. Yet, the idea has gone abroad, that our la-

bors are confined to the interest of trade alone. If I understand the true position of this body, this is altogether an erroneous conclusion.

But the conclusion has been reached by very many intelligent citizens of the States represented here, through the imperfect representations made by the news press, of the views of former meetings of this body. We wish to correct these false ideas. We want the whole sisterhood of States represented here to feel that all subjects of practical interest to them, are legitimate matters for our consideration and action. The Convention is not the creature of any class,—and it is only called the “Commercial Convention” by way of eminence, because Commerce is the great Briarean agent of colonizing, civilizing and christianizing the world.

But, Mr. President, we wish so to define these views, that every gentleman who may have ideas to suggest or plans to propose, having a tendency to improve and advance the general well-being of the States, may feel that he is acting in harmony with the general design and spirit of this body, and not contrary to it, when he shall appear in our midst and take part in our toils and discussions. There are many matters of vital importance to our section of the Union that do not at the first blush show their connection with trade and its carrying interests—its railroads, ships and steamers.

Some of these belong to the great work of Education, and the books and operations essential for the carrying forward of that work. And can these matters be neglected or overlooked by us? Why, these States are purchasing thousands, and hundreds of thousands of dollars' worth of school books annually that are got up, printed and published in the other sections of this country, not well adapted to our latitudes, nor always teaching the doctrines of philanthropy and Providence, on which we rest for our support, defence, and responsibility.

Nor do any of those productions surpass in any way similar works which Southern scholarship has, to some extent, prepared, and may, by the proper fosterings of Southern institutions and Southern men, produce within our own borders in unlimited abundance.

Mr. President, men everywhere are hobby-horsical; and it is fortunate for the world that they are so. The concentration of genius, energy, and perseverance, will insure success in almost any enterprise. The several gentlemen composing this Convention have their favorite schemes; and hence they have matured their views and consolidated their arguments on them. The merchant, the manufacturer, the navigator, the railroadist, have their plans; and they are plans that refer at once to the full development of the country. And we say to each and all of them, God speed you. But when your unopened forests shall be inhabited, and thousands of our population shall pass on to sunset, what provision shall they find made for the necessities that will press upon them?

Sir, every bar of railroad iron laid westward is pregnant with at least as large a family as that contained in Noah's ark. And when those forest homes are established, we want their hearths cheered and illuminated with the periodicals of our own presses; and the field schools, the colleges, and the universities taught from standard works produced by our own authors, philosophers, and printers. And, Mr. President, I rejoice that both at the Convention last June, at Memphis, and this morning also, again, you were pleased, in such powerful terms and arguments, to insist on the importance of these matters.

But we desire to obtain the deliberate, and, if possible, the unanimous expression of this distinguished body on the general matter of the entire resolution. We want your views stereotyped. Then, in all coming time, men occupying different positions, and cherishing plans and views full of good things for the people and posterity, will feel that they are in the legit-

imate sphere of their rights and duty, when they take part with us, though commerce and railroads may not be their favorite hobbies.

Nor is this the only good that may result. The people, the press and the parties interested in those local improvements, which these assemblies may, from time to time, endeavor to facilitate, will not view with a narrow and jaundiced eye the action of their members, if they do not adjourn to the spot of greatest interest to them with the arms of the knight of the ditch, canal or railroad on their shoulders, to perform in person the work so desirable to be done.

Another consideration of great moment is the fact, that men of great wisdom, experience and sagacity devised this Convention; and men of sound judgment and distinguished practical sense have united with them in the expression of the opinion that its meetings should be kept up from year to year. And if this be done, who can tell how multifarious will be the fields of future labor, or calculate the amount of good that may be accomplished?

We know that some unreflecting men have asked, and others will continue to ask, what good can be achieved by a voluntary convention? If no other good results, and no other fruit of our assembling shall be found hereafter, the simple advantages of becoming known, each to the other, and exchanging our views and sharing the hospitalities of our neighbors, and being thus drawn into more intimate relations, and thereby cemented into one common brotherhood, will compensate the States, and those who may represent them, a thousand times over. But, in order to realize the great practical results which must follow, sooner or later, we must welcome to discussion and development every question of practical moment that may ask a response or a solution, and let it be everywhere understood that the Convention will so act.

The resolution then took the usual course.

On motion, the rules of the Congressional House of Representatives, so far as applicable, were adopted for the Convention.

T. A. Parham, Esq., of the *Chattanooga Advertiser*, and a delegate from Tennessee, who was occupying one of the seats assigned to the Press, called the attention of the Convention to the difficulty experienced by his brethren of the editorial corps, as to names. The names of gentlemen offering resolutions were not in all cases known to the chair, and he hoped the proper steps would be taken to afford information to those who wished to report the proceedings.

At the suggestion of several other members, it was finally agreed that the Vice-Presidents announce the names of speakers from the several States.

It was also ordered, on motion, that the daily sessions of the Convention should extend from 9 A. M. to 3 P. M.

At 3 P. M., the Convention adjourned. The General Committee met for a few minutes, and appointed Lieut. M. F. Maury as their Chairman.

SECOND DAY.

The Convention met at the appointed hour, and was called to order by the President, Hon. W. C. Dawson, of Georgia.

The Journal of Monday's proceedings was read by Mr. De Saussure, the Secretary, who afterwards read a report of the Committee of Arrangements, on the following points:

1st. Requesting members of the Convention to wear their badges conspicuously.

2d. Informing the Convention that the Reception Room (Market Hall)

was open from 8 A. M. to 10 P. M., and would be furnished with the latest dates of newspapers, supplied by the press of Charleston, and with stationery for the use of Delegates.

3d. Requesting the General Committee of the Convention to use the Reception Room, if necessary, during the session of the Convention, as it will be furnished with all necessary conveniences.

Mr. Oakey, of Louisiana, offered a resolution requesting the President to furnish the Secretary with a copy of the address delivered by him on taking the Chair, that it might be published with the proceedings of the Convention.

The letter of J. D. B. De Bow, Esq., (which appeared in the *Courier* of Monday), was read by the Secretary, on motion of Hon. C. C. Clay, Sr., of Ala., and will be found below.

"WASHINGTON, April 5, 1854.

"DEAR SIR:—I cannot but regret that the pressing requirements of a public office will prevent my attendance at the approaching Convention in Charleston, to which, in the name of the committee, you have so kindly invited me. The regret is heightened by the reflection that I must be debarred the satisfaction of revisiting my native city under circumstances the most auspicious, and of mingling in agreeable and instructive intercourse with intelligent citizens from every section of the South and West, who, I see by the papers, are to be present, and with whom I have had the honor of serving in several of the great conventions that have been held, beginning with that of Memphis, in 1845, memorable from the presence and action of Mr. Calhoun.

"It is difficult to resist the evidence that these conventions, originating from the interference of other sections in the policy and institutions of the South, though convening afterwards upon purely industrial grounds, have contributed largely to that great development which has been exhibited everywhere in the last eight years throughout the South, extending her railroads, enlarging and diversifying her commerce and manufactures, stimulating her agriculture, inviting and concentrating population, leading to new combinations, and to still higher hopes, and fixing upon all minds the conviction, growing each day stronger, that in these great yet long-neglected elements of power, more than in political agitation and party platforms, is the South to vindicate, if vindicate she does again, her right to an equal rank and position in the Union.

"Nor have these been their only influences. They have torn the veil from the eyes of the South, and brought her to see and feel, in the humiliation which such knowledge must bring, that, with all of her population, and wealth, she has been, even in matters not of a material character, the willing vassal of other sections: reading, learning, or admiring only what may be found in their books, periodicals, and newspapers; in their schools and colleges; on the routes of their railroads; in their thriving cities; at their crowded watering-places; which, to the exclusion of everything of the kind at home, she has fostered and supported. This, too, without reciprocity, and in the face of the fact, that the power she was thus bolstering up, grown wanton and arrogant, has been pressing upon her rights and institutions, and offering, through its "provisos," in forced exchange for inalienable birthrights, the merest mess of pottage.

"In all the modes in which the South has been paying tribute—in her commerce and manufactures, in her carrying trade, in her education, and her travels—it would be fair to assume that 100,000,000 annually have been abstracted from the capital, which otherwise would have accumulated in her midst. What a country would she have been with this money retained at home! What ships and navies possessed! What dense metropolitan and magnificent cities! What manufacturing establishments, ma-

king every hill and valley vocal with the whirl of machinery! What railroads, radiating to every village and town, like the arteries from the human heart! What watering-places, crowded with wealth, and fashion, and beauty! What schools and colleges, in which her sons were reared to fidelity to their native hearths! What dense population, what wealth, and what power!

"I have not referred, though I ought to have done so, to those earlier Conventions of 1838-9, convening at Charleston, and Augusta, and Macon, consecrated by the presence and co-operating action of the Harpers and Haynes, McDuffies and Elmores, over whose ashes the best tears of the South have been shed. When were documents ever put forth to the world more masterly than the reports of those Conventions? When was the true policy of the South so vindicated, or the great principles of political science established and confirmed, which lie at the foundation of all national power and development? Could those noble patriots return from their graves, and visit us to-day, how would their hearts swell with pride at the spectacle which is exhibited! Well could their precepts be altogether followed, and their bright examples imitated.

"I will not attempt, in the brief space allotted in this letter, to indicate any of the important subjects which have occurred to me, from time to time, as proper for the action of the Convention. There are two or three, however, to which I will barely allude, as of vital interest in the present condition of the South and West, and upon which I had prepared, and intended some remarks, had it been possible for me to be present. I refer to the deepening of the Passes at the Mouth of the Mississippi, the reduction for a period of time, or the entire abrogation, of duties upon railroad iron, and the adoption of the policy, by the Federal Government, (by the cession of alternate sections, advocated at one time by Mr. Calhoun,) of returning to railroad companies a portion, if not the whole, of the additional value imparted by them to the public domain which they intersect, upon the same principle that private landholders voluntarily tax themselves.

"Time nor space admits of an argument upon either of these propositions, though I have upon the table before me collected, with some pains, material upon each sufficient, I think, to establish incontrovertibly its justice, expedience, and constitutionality.

"The railroad system of the country is increasing at the rate of 2,000 miles per annum, and at the present duty will pay yearly into the national treasury \$6,000,000, without conferring any material benefit upon the iron interests, for whom this duty was intended, who are confessedly able to supply but a small portion of the demand, and who, if they were able, the facts satisfactorily prove, have in this particular little or nothing to fear from foreign competition. Under a repeal of the duties in 1832, heavy imports of iron were made for the benefit of railroad companies in the old States, and now it would seem but fair that the new States, in the infancy of their population, and in the paucity of their capital, should enjoy a like advantage—an advantage which will eventually be felt by every section of the Union.

"The opening of the Mississippi, and adoption of the land system above referred to, are interesting to most of the States represented in the Convention, and more particularly to my own State of Louisiana.

"I cannot but believe that a memorial to Congress, setting out and defending these measures, emanating from a Convention every way so respectable, must have great, and perhaps controlling influence, and I trust that such a memorial will be adopted.

"In conclusion, let me express the earnest desire that the sittings of the Convention will be regularly provided for, at such places and seasons in the future, as shall seem most convenient. It was proposed in New-Orleans

in 1851, that the Southern Convention, then in session, should resolve itself into an association for the promotion of the interests of the Southern and Western States, meeting alternately at Charleston, Memphis, New-Orleans, Mobile, St. Louis, Richmond, &c. Would not Richmond be an admirable selection for the next meeting, a short time previous to the opening of Congress?

"If the gentlemen who attend at Charleston will resolve that this shall be done, and resolve to be present themselves, and to influence their several communities to be represented, the work will already be accomplished. Calmly, yet boldly, let us advance in this great work of regeneration at the South, without the spirit of recrimination—without sectional bitterness or enmities, but acting towards others upon the broad platform of duty to ourselves.

"Your obedient servant,

"J. D. B. DE BOW."

"H. W. CONNER, Esq.

Senator James C. Jones, of Tennessee, introduced resolutions declaring that the Pacific Railroad is a matter of the greatest national importance, beyond the ability of individual enterprise, and recommending, therefore, to the General Government to secure, by all Constitutional means, the right of way through Mexico, by what is called the Southern route, and to take measures for constructing the same immediately. The resolutions were received with much applause, and the mover announced his intention to address the Convention to-morrow (this day) on the subject, at length. For this purpose they were laid on the table.

Myer Myers, Esq., Norfolk, Va., addressed the Convention in a forcible and earnest manner, on the subject of direct trade and intercourse between the Southern ports and Europe, and offered resolutions looking to the establishment of a line of steamers for that purpose. The resolutions were referred to the General Committee, according to the usual practice of the Convention.

Various other resolutions were offered on the subject of a Pacific Railroad connection. Among others, by Gen. Combs, of Ky., Mr. N. D. Coleman, of Miss., and others—all of which were referred.

Mr. Norcross, of Ga., offered some remarks on the inefficiency and futility of resolutions, and efforts on paper. One of the most obvious and most sensibly felt wants of the South, in her attempts at self-development, was a deficiency of capital. He offered resolutions on the subject, contemplating means and efforts to induce the application and location of capital among us—which were referred as usual.

Albert Pike, Esq., offered resolutions on the Pacific Railroad question. He deprecated and denounced reliance or dependence on the General Government, which he contended would only build a road, if at all, through free soil. He recommended the formation of a Pacific Railroad Company to secure the right of way from Mexico, and the Indian tribes,—Cherokees, Choctaws, and Creeks. These tribes, he believed, would take at least three millions of stock in the enterprise.

He also recommended the appointment of a special committee, to address the Governors of the several States interested, with the view of securing charters and co-operation from the several Legislatures, by extra sessions, if necessary.

Mr. Pike's resolutions and remarks were received with enthusiastic applause.

Dr. Gibbon, of the United States Branch Mint, Charlotte, N. C., offered resolutions as to a uniformity of standard, &c., in coinage, and the development of Southern mining interests.

Mr. Nelson Tift, of Ga., offered resolutions recognizing and declaring the advantages and necessities of a railroad system, connecting all important points of the Southern States, and prescribing the terms on which he contended Congress should aid the work by grants of land.

A delegate from Virginia offered resolutions declaring that the Federal Government should make an offer of mediation between Russia and Turkey, in order to prevent a general European war, which would necessarily inflict great commercial distress on the country, and especially on the Southern States.

After a most eloquent eulogy on Gen. Winfield Scott, he suggested his name, with Ex-President Fillmore and Hon. A. P. Butler, of S. C., as proper persons to take charge of the delicate duty of interfering as mediators or peace commissioners.

Mr. C. K. Marshall, of Miss., also spoke in favor of these resolutions.

He considered the Czar of Russia one of the greatest philanthropists of the age, and thought our government should say to him, in substance: "If you cannot rule your people according to our notions, do the best you can, and clothe them in cotton at all events."

His speech was studded with points of pathos, humor, and illustration, and was received with much applause, not only by the Convention, but by the crowded array in the galleries, including some of the best specimens of the Southern fair sex. He hoped that the action of this Convention, in view of the present condition of European affairs, and the state of China, would open new markets for the great staples of the South. The Southern States liked to take their tea—Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, &c., could give cotton in exchange. Louisiana could furnish sugar, and Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, &c., could ask the Czar, and our other new acquaintances of the East, to take a cigar.

Mr. Nelson Tift, of Ga., offered a resolution, providing for a special committee, to report on the most simple, practicable, and Constitutional means in the reach of the Southern States, which would defend and secure their rights in the Union.

Gen. Tilghman, of Md., objected to the resolution, as foreign to the purposes of the Convention.

Senator Jones, of Tenn., thought it might at least be referred to the Business Committee, which was accordingly done, after some conversational discussion.

Mr. Wm. P. Smith, of Maryland, moved that hereafter the daily sessions of the Convention be opened with prayer.

The President stated that he would accordingly consider himself instructed and requested to secure and invite the attendance of the clergy for the purposes indicated.

Mr. Campbell, of Tenn., offered a resolution for a Special Committee of one from each State represented, to memorialize Congress immediately for a remission of the duties on railroad iron.

Mr. Underwood, of Tenn., offered a resolution, directing inquiry by the General Committee, as to the expediency of establishing a press, to carry out specially the objects of the Convention.

W. M. Lawton, Esq., of Charleston, S. C., proposed a resolution, requiring all speakers addressing the Convention to take position on the stage. The resolution was adopted, and its propriety was acquiesced in generally, not only by the members, but by all "outsiders," and especially all connected with the press. The theatre is constructed, as all theatres should be, with special reference to the stage, and it is very difficult to hear speakers from other portions. A speaker standing in the parquette or dress circle, may even exert himself, and still not be heard in some portions of the house,

and, as Mr. Lawton remarked, no one desires that members and delegates from other portions should expose themselves to an attack of bronchitis.

The adoption of this resolution, and the determination expressed by the President to enforce it—except in reference to resolutions, and the few remarks necessarily accompanying them—will greatly accommodate the Convention, and the large representation of the Southern and Southwestern press in attendance.

Mr. McKenzie, of La., offered a resolution, requesting Southern planters generally to form district, county, and State associations, for the purpose of establishing cotton depots, direct lines of steamers, supporting home markets and enterprise, &c. These were referred to the General Committee on Business and Resolutions, which will be understood of all other resolutions where a different disposition is not indicated. One recommendation of Mr. McKenzie was that "planters should get out of debt"—a very good piece of advice, which the creditors of planters will no doubt endorse.

Gen. Lewis M. Ayer, of Barnwell, S. C., offered resolutions directing the General Committee to inquire as to the propriety of legislation by the Southern States, exempting the real estate of actual occupants from taxation and execution for a certain period. The resolution was based on a preamble, asserting the importance of a dense and permanent population.

G. A. Trenholm, Esq., of Charleston, S. C., offered a memorial (not read) from R. W. Habersham, Esq., editor of the *Self-Instructor*, on the subject of education, which was referred.

Gen. Gibbs, of Tenn., offered resolutions recommending the States and cities on the South Atlantic and the Gulf, to procure charters for companies to institute direct trade, by steam and otherwise—each State interested to become a stockholder.

Mr. Chas. A. Price, of Fa., (one of the Assistant Secretaries,) offered a resolution, declaring that the interests of the South required a railroad across the Peninsula of Florida, the eastern terminus to be at the mouth of the St. John's, and the western at some point south of the Suwannee.

Mr. Wilcox, of Tenn., offered a preamble and resolution, requesting the General Government to make cotton and tobacco subjects of special diplomatic negotiation, in view of the aspect of Eastern affairs.

Mr. Whittle, of Va., offered a resolution for appointing a committee of three from each State represented, to provide for the permanent organization, and regular periodical meetings, of the Southern and Southwestern Convention.

The Secretary presented, on behalf of Gen. Leslie Combs, of Ky., (who was engaged on the General Committee,) a memorial from the Chamber of Commerce of Louisville, Ky., requesting the next meeting of the Convention in that city.

Mr. Brownlow, of Tenn., followed with some remarks.

It was ascertained, soon after 12 M., that the Committee would not be prepared to report to-day, and accordingly the Convention adjourned.

Art. XII.—MOBILE AND NEW-ORLEANS RAILROAD.

THIS important link in the chain of Southern improvement, connecting as it will two of our largest and most prosperous cities, is, we are glad to see, likely soon to be supplied. The address of this Company, and some extracts from the reports of the engineer, are annexed:—

Address of the President and Directors of the Pontchartrain Railroad Company to the Common Council of New Orleans, relative to the proposed construction of the Railroad from New-Orleans to Mobile.

The undersigned, the President and Directors of the Pontchartrain Railroad Company, respectfully submit the following statement:

Previous to making application to the Legislature of Louisiana to pass the bill which authorizes the city of New-Orleans to subscribe for 15,000 shares in the stock of the Pontchartrain Railroad Company, payable in bonds of the city at thirty years date; every preparatory step had been commenced and is now consummated, that was essential to provide for the construction of a railroad from New-Orleans to Mobile, so that if your honorable body shall deem it conducive to the interests you represent, to sanction the subscription, the work can at once be put in operation and pushed forward with all speed.

The preparatory steps alluded to were:

First, A thorough survey of the contemplated line of road, to ascertain the practicability of the work and its cost, the surveys, drawings, field notes, profiles, and estimates of which, together with engineers' reports (made out with great completeness and accuracy), are now ready for inspection at the office of the Company, in the First District, over the Southern Bank. When this work was finished, it was made clear that no impediments existed, either physical or pecuniary.

Next, Competent legal advice was had in examining the charters granted by the States of Alabama and Mississippi to the Mobile and New-Orleans Railroad Company. They were found defective, and at considerable labor and expense, have been amended in every particular to subserve the interests of the Company; and copies of all in printed form are now submitted. One invaluable provision has been secured in the Mississippi charter, which is, that no other road can be built to run parallel to the New-Orleans and Mobile Railroad, through the counties of Jackson, Harrison, and Hancock, for the space of twenty-five years. This privilege is in terms exclusive (see Sec. 2, p. 12), thus affording a most important security to the city of New-Orleans, that no rival road will impair her interests in this company, and giving like security to the capitalists who have proposed to take the bonds for the whole work, without which the undersigned have reason to know that the entire negotiations could not have been effected.

The next point was, to ascertain the practicability of selling the bonds. It was idle to go through the various labors attendant upon bringing this measure in practical business form before your honorable body, unless there was some certainty of selling, not only the bonds issued by the city of New-Orleans, but as much more of the bonds of the companies as would be necessary to complete the whole undertaking.

The house of Messrs. Corning & Co., of New York, propose to make the entire negotiation; at the same time this negotiation may be unnecessary, as parties offer to take the contract for constructing the road, payable in bonds. So much attained, the right of way came then to be considered. At the New-Orleans terminus the Company already owned in fee simple a river front of sixty feet, running back the same breadth, to where the road will diverge onward to Mobile; and owned its depot on the Levee. It remained to obtain similar advantages at the Mobile terminus, and the right of way through that city. By a judicious choice of the point for the depot, objections were overcome, and the privilege asked for will be granted.

On the line of the road through the rural part of the State of Alabama, the right of way through private property has in every instance been accorded without charge, and the consent of the parties thereto in writing is deposited in the office of the Company in Mobile, and the agents of the

company have nearly completed the entire route through Mississippi with equal success.

An ample supply of iron, through the courtesy of the Opelousas Company, is placed at the disposal of the Pontchartrain Company, sufficient to last until its own can be brought to New-Orleans.

The Legislatures of the States of Mississippi, Alabama, and Louisiana, have passed joint resolutions, instructing their Senators and requesting their Representatives to obtain donations of the public lands within those States on the line of the road from Mobile to New-Orleans, for the benefit of that enterprise, which would secure to it 360,000 acres; and the Commissioner of the Land Office at Washington, agreeably to the following notice, preparatory, as is usual, to the donation of lands, has withdrawn them from sale or entry. This bill has already passed the Senate:

[No. 500.]

"Notice of withdrawal of certain lands in the States of Alabama, Mississippi and Louisiana, situated on the routes of the following proposed railroads, viz.:

"From Mobile to Girard, Ala.; from Selma to Gunter's Landing, on the Tennessee River, Ala.; and the continuation of the road from Savannah, Ga., via Mobile, Ala., to New-Orleans, La.; and the branch thereof from Albany, Ga., via Eufaula, on the Chattahoochee River, to Montgomery, Ala.

"In pursuance of the orders of the President of the United States, bearing date of the 13th and 21st instant, all the public lands within the following named townships, situated along the routes of the proposed railroads above mentioned, in the districts of land subject to sale at the several offices herein mentioned, will be withheld from sale or entry until further notice.

"Given under my hand, at the General Land Office, at the city of Washington, this 28th day of February, 1854.

"By order of the President:

"JOHN WILSON, *Commissioner*."

The final point to ascertain, then, was whether suitable persons could be found to contract for the work. Satisfactory evidence of this will be furnished to the committee to whom the Common Council may conclude to refer this matter, and from which it will appear that the entire work can be completed within two and a half years at furthest.

These are the preparatory steps taken, referred to in the commencement of this report. Are they not conclusive? Do they not show that only one more step is needed, which is the action of your honorable body in subscribing for its share of stock as authorized by the statute of the Legislature now before you? And after the thorough consideration which that body gave to the subject, the undersigned cannot but entertain every confidence that the bill will receive your concurrence, especially after review of the foregoing facts, accompanied with its voucher, in a form not to be questioned.

Perhaps in the history of railroads in our country there is hardly a parallel case, wherein every provision for payment and construction was made so complete as in this one, before any part of the manual work was commenced. But this may be all granted, and yet the question be asked—

Will the road pay?

Railroad experience has settled this fact. Short roads are more expensive to work than long roads, considering differences of toll: therefore, the Pontchartrain Railroad, in this point of view, is now worked to every disadvantage, and yet, as your honorable body is probably aware, it has earned the last fifteen months, and is now earning, a net sum of ten per cent. on its capital, and has paid dividends accordingly, as will be seen by the statement annexed of its earnings and expenditures for the year past. And it should

be borne in mind that this ten per cent. has been paid on a capital of \$500,000, and the road being not five miles long, the cost is equal to \$100,000 each mile! Now, is it not quite consistent with railroad experience to say, that if you lengthen this road one hundred and forty miles, at the great diminution in cost to about \$25,000 to \$28,000 a mile equipped, and preserve its trade, with its concurrent increased rate of toll, it must maintain its rate of revenue! This view of the case should satisfy any candid mind, without further statistics. But in the opinion of the undersigned, the trade will not be stationary. When a man can leave his door at the Bay of St. Louis, Pass Christian or Biloxi, at a convenient hour in the morning, and be at his business at New-Orleans by 9, or leave Mobile in the first morning train, and be home again the same night, no practical man can doubt that a railroad with such a secured trade as this one does and will enjoy, and such a prospective trade, can fail, under any ordinary management, to pay less than eight per cent.

Consider the augmented population which convenience to our market and travel will draw to and spread along the shores of Lake Borgne and the Gulf. Add the increased travel which may be supposed, when an unbroken railroad communication from New-Orleans to Maine is completed, and that which will come whenever the New-Orleans and Opelousas Railroad shall be the great thoroughfare through our State onward to Texas and thence probably to the Pacific, and what has been said on the subject of dividends will appear moderate in the extreme.

A most important consideration to the city of New-Orleans, and which should engage her in this enterprise, is the great increase in the assessed value of property, and the corresponding increase in trades, occupations, and population, which must and does inevitably follow railroads. It is not too much to predict that in a few years the increase in the tax roll of the city, from this source alone, would of itself go far to compensate the city, independently of any dividends.

A continuous line of railroad, lacking a few miles, is already constructed from the shores of Canada and along the Atlantic Board to Columbus in Georgia. Opposite Columbus, from Girard, a road is being built to run into the city of Mobile: the contract is taken and the work begun. For a length of 1600 miles civilized man has said this thing must be! Will New-Orleans stretch out her hand to meet that civilization, and complete the last link—140 miles—and the iron horse may sweep from our doors to the shores of the St. Lawrence? Think of it, even Alabama has preceded us! and leaves us the last lagging step to take in one of the most striking features of our national progress. Shall we allow it to be said, that from the most Northern extremity of this great Union to its most Western on the seaboard line, every State therein has contributed its quota of road with the sole exception of the line from New-Orleans to Mobile? Capital, industry, intelligence, are here ready for the work, if your honorable body will but say the word, and give your sanction to it in the manner indicated by our Legislature.

In conclusion, the Board ask of your honorable bodies the right to be heard before the people—the right to the people themselves to decide for themselves whether they deem it advisable that this great and last link in railway communication to New-York and the Canadas shall be constructed; and whether they deem it advisable that the city of New-Orleans, emulating the example of Mobile, shall lend her credit and aid to the enterprise.

JOHN EGERTON, *President*.
H. M. WRIGHT,
G. MILTENBERGER,
LOUIS DE SAULLES,
M. HEINE,
D. N. HENNER,
EDW'D OGDEN.

Statement of the Pontchartrain Railroad Company.—Statement of Receipts and Expenditures of the Pontchartrain Railroad for the year ending November 30, 1853:

232,020 passengers, at 25 cents each.....	\$58,505 00
Freight, &c.....	51,742 95
	<hr/>
	\$110,247 95
Rents and mail transportation.....	4,500 00
	<hr/>
	\$114,747 95
Gross expenses for the year.....	59,427 97
	<hr/>
Net gain.....	\$55,319 98
Capital.....\$500,000—Dividend.....	50,000 00
	<hr/>
Surplus.....	\$5,319 98

P. H. GOODWYN, *Secretary.*

NEW-ORLEANS, April 15, 1854.

Brief Synopsis of the Report of Lewis Troost, Esq., Consulting Engineer, on the Preliminary Surveys of the Mobile and New-Orleans Railroad, made by the late Colonel A. A. Dexter, C. E., for the Mobile and New-Orleans Railroad Company.

Several preliminary lines were surveyed by Col. Dexter from Mobile to Pass Chef Menteur, all of them passing through the watering-places on the Gulf; of these the following line is the most favorable: Commencing at Mobile River, in Mobile, fifty feet northwardly of the north line of Virginia-street, the line runs parallel with Virginia-street to the western boundary of the city; thence deflecting to the southwest, it runs to Pascagoula Bay, near Mers. Rne Kreb's—crossing North, Middle and South Forks of Dog River at the head of navigation, and keeping about three and one-half miles south-east of a direct line between Mobile and Pascagoula, in order to avoid the ridges between the waters of Mobile Bay and Escatapa River.

Thence crossing Pascagoula Bay, it runs along and near the coast of the Gulf of Mexico, in the rear of Ocean Springs, the villages of Biloxi and Mississippi City, Pass Christian and Shieldsborough, to the Great Rigolets, at its entrance into Lake Borgne; intersecting in this distance the Bays of Biloxi and St. Louis and East Pearl River.

Thence crossing the Rigolets, the line runs nearly direct to New-Orleans, intersecting the Little Rigolets and Pass Chef Menteur—the latter at the mouth of Bayou Gentilly, near Fort Wood.

The country from Mobile to Pascagoula (40.19 miles) is a flat, piny woods for 13.94 miles, and gently undulating for 26.25 miles. The soil is light sand and mud and clay mixed, and is very favorable for grading.

From Pascagoula Bay to the Grand Plaine marshes (52.67 miles) the country is very level, and from eight to fifteen feet above the surface of mean tide in the Gulf of Mexico, and the soil is composed for the most part of sand.

Grand Plaine marshes consist of a sandy alluvion, seldom, if ever, subject to overflow, covered with occasional patches of live oak.

The sandy alluvion is from three to five feet deep, and rests on hard strata of sand and shells sufficiently firm to sustain an embankment.

The marshes between Pearl River and Chef Menteur are covered by occasional patches of live oak, and consist of sandy alluvion, resting on firm strata of sand and shells, at depths varying from five to ten feet, capable of sustaining a good roadway. The borings and soundings for foundations on

this line show that good and firm foundations may be obtained for bridge structures over the rivers and bays at the depths exhibited in the following

TABLE OF SOUNDINGS.

Name of River or Bay.	Extreme depth of good foundation below surface of medium stage of water.	Depth of water at same sounding.	Depth of sand, mud and shells at same sounding.
East Pascagoula River.....	35 feet.....	18 feet.....	17 feet.
West Pascagoula River.....	55 ".....	24 ".....	31 "
Bay of Biloxi.....	35 ".....	18 ".....	17 "
Bay St. Louis.....	40 ".....	12 ".....	28 "
East Pearl River.....	60 ".....	45 ".....	15 "
Great Rigolets.....	65 ".....	44 ".....	21 "
Little Rigolets.....	62 ".....	40 ".....	22 "
Chef Menteur.....	53 ".....	49 ".....	4 "

The result of these soundings and borings is very satisfactory, and at once demonstrates the practicability of constructing a permanent road. The stratum on which this firm foundation can be obtained consists of compact stiff yellow and blue clay.

The following table will exhibit the characteristics of the line:—

Total length of line.....	miles	139.
Total length of straight line.....	miles	133.32
Total length of curved line.....	miles	5.68
Total deflection in degrees.....		322° 45'
Shortest radius of curvature.....	feet	5730.
Total length of level grade.....	miles	87.20
Maximum grade each way per mile.....	feet	26.40
Total length of grades, from 0 to 10 feet per mile.....	miles	26.27
Total length of grades, from 10 to 26.40 feet per mile.....	miles	25.53
Total length of maximum grades of 26.40 feet per mile.....	miles	14.58
Total rise and fall in feet.....	feet	704.29
Highest summit above mean tide to be overcome.....	feet	137.

The grades and curves of the Mobile and New-Orleans Railroad, as shown in the above table, are remarkably favorable. With a good railroad, and a strong iron rail, trains containing 1,000 or 2,000 passengers can safely pass over it, at a speed of 40 or 50 miles per hour, and freight trains with a load of 275 tons freight, may be hauled over it at a speed of 15 miles per hour, thus making the time of transit for passengers between Mobile and New-Orleans from three to four hours, and for freight from nine to ten hours.

Omitting the details of plans of construction and of estimates, it is sufficient to state that they are made for a first class railroad in every respect; all the timber exposed to the action of the sea-worms is to be protected by metal sheathing; all navigable rivers and bays are to be provided with draw-bridges, 60 feet wide, except the Great Rigolets, where it is proposed to have two double draws of 120 feet opening each; the charter of the Pontchartrain Railroad in Louisiana may render it illegal to build a permanent bridge across the Great Rigolets with openings, for navigation, as proposed. In this event, it would be advisable to make a temporary crossing, with a steam vessel so arranged as to take passenger and freight trains on deck, and rely on the wisdom and justice of future legislation for permission to substitute a permanent bridge.

The total cost of the construction of the entire road complete, including an equipment for the first and second year's business, is estimated at \$3,836,360, or \$27,016 per mile.

LEWIS TROOST, *Civil Engineer,*
Office Eng'r Dep't M. and N. O. Railroad.

MOBILE, April 10, 1854.

Art. XIII.—THE OHIO VALLEY AND THE SOUTHERN ATLANTIC.*

THE Kentucky Legislature, as we recently stated, has granted a liberal charter to what is called the Kentucky Union Railway Company, whose object is to make the last link in the railway line from Cincinnati to Charleston. The charter is a good one—the object a grand one—and the capital, we cannot doubt, will be found when the plans are fully matured. The Union Railway will, in Kentucky, be from 140 to 160 miles in length. The Tennessee part, completing the line to Knoxville, can, we believe, be easily made.

The distance by the route adopted will be as follows:—

Cincinnati to Danville.....	132 miles.
Danville to Knoxville	130 "
Knoxville to Charleston, via Blue Ridge Railroad.....	370 "
Aggregate.....	632 miles.

This route may be modified in several particulars; but, as there is a railroad nearly finished to Danville, Ky., that route will probably be preferred. There may be, however, difficulties which will throw the balance in favor of another route. It is not perfectly certain that a good line can be found from Danville to Knoxville. The more direct route, undoubtedly, would be to leave the Covington Road at Paris, and proceed through Richmond, Kentucky. It is not, however, of routes we would speak, but of the immense advantages, both to the South and West, of such a work. We doubt whether any railway in America will ever be of such vast importance as one which shall connect the valley of the Ohio with the Southern Atlantic, on the most direct route. The productions of the different sections are totally different; the habits and usages of the people are different. The interior country, reached from either end, is full of the most valuable mineral resources, and thus all the exchanges would be beneficial, both in a commercial and moral aspect. It is now nearly twenty years since this subject engaged the profound attention of the people of Cincinnati, Charleston, and all the intermediate country. We have before us the pamphlets and letters published and written at that time. They exhibit the proceedings of various public bodies, and the records of many distinguished men, now commemorated by history. Among them were Gen. Harrison and Dr. Drake, of this city, and Gen. Hayne and Col. Blanding, of Charleston.

Time has only proved what was then said of the great importance of this work, and rendered its necessity to the country more apparent.

The completion of this grand route, from Charleston to Cincinnati, is now entirely within reach. From Cincinnati to Danville is nearly completed. From Charleston to Anderson, South Carolina, is finished. The Blue Ridge Railroad from Anderson to Knoxville, via the Rabun Gap, is secured by the ample aid South Carolina and Tennessee have given to the work. From Knoxville to the Kentucky State line, is secured by the State aid and County subscriptions. The line covered by the Kentucky Union Railway charter is, therefore, the only one wanting. By its connection with other roads, and the immense through traffic which must inevitably take place, the stock of the road will undoubtedly be good, notwithstanding the sparseness of the country through which it passes.

There is no enterprise in which the merchants and capitalists of Cincinnati have a deeper interest than in this, and we trust it will meet with the encouragement which it so eminently deserves.

* From the *Cincinnati Railroad Record*.

Art. XIV.—RAILROAD IRON.

EXTRACT FROM A FULL ACCOUNT OF ITS PRODUCTION IN THIS COUNTRY PREPARED FOR THE PHILADELPHIA EVENING BULLETIN.

Railroad Mills and their estimated production for the year 1854.

Montour Iron Works, Danville, Pa.....	18,000 tons.
Rough and Ready, Danville, Pa.....	4,000 do.
Lackawanna, Scranton, Pa.....	16,000 do.
Phoenix Iron Works, Phoenixville, Pa.....	20,000 do.
Safe Harbor, Safe Harbor, Pa.....	15,000 do.
Great Western, Brady's Bend, Pa.....	12,000 do.
New Works, Pittsburg, Pa.....	5,000 do.
Pottsville Iron Works, Pottsville, Pa.....	3,000 do.
Cambria Iron Works, Cambria, Pa.....	5,000 do.
Trenton Works, Trenton, N. J.....	15,000 do.
Massachusetts Iron Works, Boston, Mass.....	15,000 do.
Mt. Savage Iron Works, Mt. Savage, Md.....	12,000 do.
Richmond Mill, Richmond, Va.....	5,000 do.
Washington Rolling Mill, Wheeling, Va.....	5,000 do.
Crescent Works, Wheeling, Va.....	5,000 do.
New Mill, Portsmouth, Ohio,.....	5,000 do.
	160,000 do.

Represented Items in the production of 160,000 tons of Railroad Iron.

Pig iron required— $1\frac{1}{2}$ ton per ton of rails.....	213,333 tons.
Coal used $5\frac{1}{2}$ " " ".....	840,000 do.
Iron Ore $3\frac{1}{2}$ " " ".....	560,000 do.
Limestone $1\frac{1}{2}$ " " ".....	213,333 do.

Total number of tons raw material 1,826,666 do.

Labor employed from the Materials in the ground, to the finished rail in Market.

In mining, transporting, and delivering Coals, per ton of coal at \$1 92..	\$1,612,800
In mining, transporting, and delivering Iron Ore, per ton of ore at \$1 60	896,000
In mining, transporting, and delivering Limestone, per ton of limestone at 65 cents.....	138,666
At and about the furnace, per ton of Pig Iron at \$3 11.....	663,466
At and about the Mill, per ton of Rails at \$12.....	1,920,000
Carrying Rails to market, say average \$2.....	320,000
No. of men employed, 18,500—Yearly earnings \$300 per head.....	\$5,550,932
Population supported, 5 times 18,500, equal to.....	92,500
Breadstuffs consumed per annum, 92,500 persons, at \$50 per head.....	4,625,000
Capital employed in Rail Iron Works now erected.....	10,000,000

Other interests as below :

Owners of Coal lands—royalty—valued on ton of rails at \$1 84.....	\$294,000
Coal Operator—his average profit valued on a ton of Rails at 95 cents..	152,000
Owners of Ore lands—royalty—valued on a ton of Rails at \$1 41.....	225,600
Owners of Limestone quarries—Quarry Cave—valued on a ton of Rails at 13 cents.....	20,800
Capitalists—use of money, interest, &c., valued on a ton of rails at \$1 50.....	240,000
Transportation Companies—clear profits over and above working expenses, valued on a ton of Rails, at \$3 78.....	604,800
Storekeepers and others, for mdse., oil, brass, fire brick, &c, valued on a ton of Rails at \$2 39.....	382,400
	\$1,919,600

Such is the extent and sphere of a business commenced only a few years ago, at great hazard and expense, by men who had the enterprise and ability to go into it. Now that they have learned the art, obtained the proper experience, and invested their fortunes in the new business, it is heartlessly proposed, by certain great railroad corporations—themselves the recipients of the bounty of the General Government to a degree bordering on rapacity, and especially by those who depend upon selling bonds at a discount greater, in many cases, than the whole amount of the duty—it is proposed by these to annihilate the domestic manufacture of railroad iron—to quit the production of an article which sane men would suppose they ought to desire, to foster, and encourage to the utmost possible extent, because it is as essential to the construction of railroads as bricks and mortar to the building of houses.

MISCELLANEOUS.

THE MINERAL RESOURCES OF VIRGINIA AND NORTH CAROLINA.

THE following is the work of Samuel M. Dewey, a public-spirited citizen of Virginia:—

List of Valuable and Interesting Minerals, including some of the Principal Ranges of Rocks, known to abound in the Counties of Henry, Patrick, Carroll and Floyd, in Virginia; and in Rockingham, Stokes, Forsyth, Surrey and Yadkin, in North Carolina: a Section of the Piedmont Country, embracing the Northern Head-waters of the Great Yadkin, and all the Tributaries of Dan River.

1. **IRON ORE** of every desirable species or kind apparently boundless in quantity; beds or veins of one or more valuable varieties existing in each of the above named counties, all of which, except Carroll, Henry and Forsyth, having yielded ores that have been successfully converted into iron of the best quality.

2. **COAL**—Anthracite, or Stone Coal, in Rockingham and Stokes, approaching nearly or quite to the line of Henry County, if it does not pass to that section of Virginia; the Fossil Coal is of excellent quality, and to all appearance is exhaustless, as regards quantity.

3. **LIMESTONE**—Primitive, Granular Limestone, or the finest qualities of White, Gray, Mottled and other colored Marble; there being seven quarries in Stokes, three in Forsyth, two in Yadkin; besides an extensive range of impure Limestone, in the counties of Stokes and Forsyth; a single range or bed of the same in Patrick; and several quarries of secondary Limestone in Rockingham, some of the latter being Hydraulic Limestone, while others are of the most beautiful and valuable qualities of Granular, Black, Variegated Marble, superior to any other known to be found in the United States.

4. **LEAD ORE**—In Carroll, Floyd, Stokes and Surrey.

5. **COPPER ORE**—In Patrick, Carroll, Floyd, Forsyth and Surrey.

6. **GOLD**—There have been recently discovered three auriferous deposits in Patrick, one in Carroll, three in Stokes, four in Forsyth, three in Surrey, and four in Yadkin; making eighteen Gold deposit mines, each of them being believed to be traceable to veins that have not been sufficiently penetrated or tested to be pronounced workable, or rich enough to justify their being worked.

7. **MANGANESE**—Three beds in Patrick, one in Carroll, one in Henry, two in Forsyth, and one in Surrey.

8. **PLUMBAGO, OR BLACK LEAD**—Occurs repeatedly in Patrick, Stokes, Forsyth, Surrey, Yadkin, and Rockingham.
 9. **NATIVE ALUM**—Exists in several parts of Patrick and Stokes.
 10. **SALTPETRE**—Exists in Patrick, Henry, Floyd, Stokes, and Surrey.
 11. **FIRE BRICK CLAY**—In Patrick, Stokes, Surrey and Rockingham.
 12. **PORCELAIN CLAY**—In Stokes and Surrey.
 13. **POTTERS' CLAY**—In Forsyth, and throughout the other counties.
 14. **PURE WHITE TALC**—or crude French Chalk in Surrey—there being an extensive range of impure Talc in Patrick, and also one in Carroll.
 15. **ITACOLUMITE**, or perfectly fire-proof Elastic Sandstone, in Stokes.
 16. **BRONZE-COLORED, SATIN-LUSTRED SERPENTINE**, in Stokes and Forsyth.
 17. **VARIEGATED AND OTHER VALUABLE KINDS OF STEALITE OR SOAPSTONE**, in Patrick, Carroll, Floyd, Stokes, Forsyth, Surrey and Yadkin.
 18. **PRIMITIVE SANDSTONES**—Suitable for a variety of purposes, such as Grindstones and Whetstones, in Patrick, Carroll, Stokes and Surrey.
 19. **SECONDARY SANDSTONES**—Suitable for Grindstones and Whetstones, in Henry, Rockingham and Stokes.
 20. **MILL-STONE GRIT**, in Patrick, Henry, Stokes and Rockingham.
 21. **BURR-STONE**, in Floyd, Stokes, Surrey and Forsyth.
 22. **JASPER**, of many varieties, including the **OPAL, STRIPED, YELLOW, RED, BROWN**, and other hues—some of them being drusy, or incrustated with minute Quartz Crystals—also Botryoidal and Mammillated concretions, in four parts of Stokes.
 23. **CALCEDONY**, of all tints and colors, embracing the **Wax-lustred, the Milky or White Cornelian, Rose-colored, Blue, Pink, Honey, Yellow, Sard, &c.**, with Mammillated and Botryoidal concretions, also the Druse, in nine sections of Stokes, and one of Forsyth.
 24. **AGATES**—Mossy, Yellow, Scarlet, Green and Gold-colored, with waving lines, &c., in two parts of Stokes.
 25. **GARNETS**, in Carroll, Patrick, Stokes and Forsyth.
 26. **BLACK SCHIST, or TOURMALINE**, in Henry, Patrick, Carroll, Stokes, Forsyth and Surrey.
 27. **YELLOW TOURMALINE**, in Yadkin.
 28. **STALACTITIC QUARTZ**, with Jasper base, in Stokes.
 29. **HORNSTONE**, of Honey, Yellow, Claret, and other colors, in Stokes.
 30. **AMETHYSTIC QUARTZ**, Crystals, in Henry and Forsyth.
 31. **LIMPID, CORRUGATED, YELLOW AND PINK-colored Auricular Pyramidal and Prismatic-shaped Quartz Crystals**, in Henry, Forsyth, Patrick, Carroll, Floyd, Rockingham, Stokes, Surrey and Yadkin.
 32. **ACTINOLITE, or Cotton-Stone**, in Floyd, Stokes, Surrey, Yadkin and Forsyth.
 33. **TABULAR DRUSE, QUARTZ**, in Forsyth and Yadkin.
 34. **SELICIOUS PETRIFICATIONS** in Stokes and Rockingham, constituting a vast range of petrified trees, or parts of trees, some of them measuring nine feet in circumference, and some that were evidently more or less decayed, previous to undergoing the process of petrification, contain clusters of Quartz Crystals. This remarkable body of fossil curiosities extends from Germanton, in Stokes, to Leaksville, in Rockingham, a distance of about twenty-five miles, and fully merits the name of **PETRIFIED FOREST**.
- PRINCIPAL ROCKS.**—1. Granite; 2. Syenite; 3. Gneiss; 4. Hornblende Slate; 5. Mica-Slate; 6. Clay-Slate; 7. Micaceous Schist and Shales; 8. Primitive Sandstone; 9. Secondary Sandstone; 10. Calcareous Sandstone; 11. Iron or Ink-stone; 12. Secondary Shales, Talc and Slates; 13. Augite, of many varieties; 14. Basalt and Cling Stones; 15. Wacke; 16. Porcelain Granite; 17. Blivine; 18. Primitive and Secondary, also, Trapean Porphyry; 19. Talc; 20. Stealite, or Soapstone; 21. Cellular, White, Gray, Rose, Smoky, and other Quartz.

In Stokes, near Danbury, the county seat, is a large hill, or mound, com-

posed of the purest and most beautiful species of Calcedony, deserving to be called—a CALCEDONIC MOUNTAIN.

CARBONATE OF LIME.—Says the *Danville Register*:—"Through the politeness of Prof. S. W. Dewey, Mineralogist and Geologist, we have been put in possession of two handsome specimens of *Carbonate of Lime*, or marble, as it is usually termed. These specimens are from the Abbot and Martin Lime or Marble Quarries, in Stokes County, North Carolina. The one from the Abbot Quarry is that known to mineralogists under the appellation of *Common or Compact Limestone*, of a grayish-white color. This specimen, although a surface one, is of exceedingly fine grain, and susceptible of the highest polish. The quarry is extensive, and believed to be almost inexhaustible. From it, blocks and shafts of marble, of any requisite length and thickness, can easily be cut to order, with an assurance that it will be more durable, and retain its polish in this climate much longer, than any foreign marble. This quarry lies only one mile from Hairston's Falls, on Dan River, up to which the river is navigable from this place.

"The specimen from Martin's Lime Quarry is known to mineralogists as *Granular Limestone*. It differs from the former both in texture and fracture. When broken, it appears to be composed of small crystals or grains, which have a shining or glimmering lustre. The specimen before us is also a surface one, but bespeaks it the true Carbonate of Lime. It is white and pure, with a fracture resembling that of loaf-sugar. It is a true specimen of the marble so extensively used for monuments, statues, and architectural decorations. This quarry is also thought to be inexhaustible, and capable of furnishing marble equal in texture and quality to the finest specimens from granular limestone quarries hitherto opened in any country of the world. It is located some nine miles from Hairston's Falls, and is destined to become a valuable deposit.

"Professor Dewey, who has devoted some five or six years of his life to the discovery and developing the mineral resources of the region of country on the head-waters of the Dan and Yadkin, assures us, that these Limestone or Marble Quarries furnish specimens of *compact* and *granular* marble equal to any that he has met with in the mineral cabinets of the Northern cities. For monuments, tombstones, and architectural decorations, he considers them infinitely superior to foreign marble, from the fact, that they will stand the ravages of climate, and retain their polish longer, in the Middle and Southern States, than the finest Italian marble.

"**PATRICK SILVER MINE.**—It appears that the specimens of what was once thought to be silver ore, found on the plantation of Mr. Epperson, in the County of Patrick, have proved to be a species of Sulphuret of Iron, known as common pyrites, of a grayish color. At one time we were assured that a competent mineralogist had pronounced these specimens genuine silver ore. Since then, we have been assured by an equally skilful mineralogist that it is nothing but *gray iron pyrites*. We are not disposed to attach more importance to the opinion of the one than the other; and as there appears to be some doubt as to the nature of the specimens in question, we propose that they compromise on *nickel*, or *laminated mica*.

"**MINERAL SPECIMENS.**—We have in our possession a number of Mineral specimens, collected by Professor Dewey, to which we propose inviting the attention of our readers, from time to time, by way of giving them a faint idea of the vast amount of mineral wealth of the region of country above this place. We would give them a list of all the minerals hitherto discovered, with their respective places of deposit, but this would preclude us from such remarks on the specimens in our possession as are calculated to awaken that degree of interest requisite to make an indelible impression upon the mind. We are extremely anxious to see these minerals fully developed, and consequently shall spare no pains in imparting, from time to time, all the facts gleaned by us in relation to them."

EDITORIAL NOTE.

SEVERAL NOTICES of late publications are excluded from this number, but will have place in the next.

OUR PLANTING FRIENDS seem not to have agreed with us in regard to the value of the REVIEW, as a medium for advertising estates or lands to be sold or wanted to be purchased. They prefer their own local papers; and yet the REVIEW reaches the hands and homes of planters throughout *all the Southern States*, and our rates of advertising are very moderate. The same remark may be made with reference to professional men in the interior, schools, colleges, watering-places, etc.

THE EDITOR offers his thanks for the promptness with which a large number of subscribers answered a late circular asking for remittances. It is thus that efforts of this kind can only be sustained. We shall endeavor to reciprocate such attentions. To those who have not yet responded, we cannot surely be considered importunate in entreating again for remittances. Many thousand dollars are due to the REVIEW, and the expense of publishing the work absorbs a large part of the receipts, and leaves but small profits at the best. *Remit, then, remit immediately*, upon being reminded by the receipt of this number. Who pays quickly may almost be said to pay doubly, and agents' commissions are also saved. We hope to have a great many new subscribers in the coming year, and to have no discontinuances. Will not our friends stand by us? If the South will not sustain this work liberally, who will? Is the North so partial to it? We apologize to those who receive bills at any time after having already paid. Such errors are unavoidable, and are corrected the moment they are noted. The mortification is ours. In the whole history of the REVIEW, no individual has been allowed to pay the same subscription twice, although in a thousand instances they have been paid to irresponsible persons. Don't discontinue for such a cause, then—it is not just.

THE INDUSTRIAL RESOURCES, 3 vols. for \$6, are still offered for sale, and can be sent by mail. This is below the cost.

REMITTANCES may be made in any bank-notes, in post-office stamps, in gold, in orders upon merchants in any city, payable upon receipt of crops. The headquarters of the REVIEW are at New-Orleans. An auxiliary office has been established at Washington, D. C., where the Editor will remain the present summer.

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